The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 31, 1893.

The Week.

THE discussion of the silver question in the House closed in a most creditable manner on Saturday, the speeches by Reed, Cockran, and Wilson being especially able and forcible. The fortnight's debate had greatly strengthened the cause of repeal of the Purchase Act, and the free-coinage men lost ground every day. The passage of the Repeal Bill by the House on Monday had been assured for some time, and the only curiosity was as to the size of the majority on that side. Bland himself admits that "the bill will pass the Senate without much delay." Indeed, he goes so far as to say that he "would not be astonished to see it slip through without friction almost any day." He explains that "the same pressure is being brought to bear upon the Senate that has proved so effective in the House, and the result is likely to be the same." Mr. Bland is quite right. The "pressure" in question is that of the public opinion of the United States, and it must prove as irresistible with the Senate as with the House.

Mr. Bourke Cockran's speech of Saturday in the House was very effective in his analysis of the "debtor and creditor" argument in the free-coinage controversy. No single point raised by the friends of silver has in the past obtained greater hold on the minds of ignorant and credulous constituents. In listening, during the long years of "cheap money" agitation, to the fulminations of Congressional and platform orators against the wrong of forcing debtors to pay in the money in which their debts were originally contracted, one might suppose that the country was crowded with weak borrowers, every one of them ground down under the exactions of the capitalists. Wall Street in particular has been selected as the type of such exaction, and it is safe to say that the uninstructed citizens of the West have believed for years that Wall Street is one vast hive of creditors, to whom the nation as a whole owes money out of which the hardest terms are wrung. What is the truth? Mr. Cockran demonstrated clearly that whoever does constitute the debtor class, the laboring man does not. By the nature of his occupation, he is a constant creditor. If the money in which he pays be debased, there surely can result no gain to him. Nor is this all. The savings bank is an institution designed to make the laboring man, to the extent of his money savings, an actual lender. Last week there was a sudden contraction in the Wall Street loans; caused by what? Simply by the withdrawal, present or prospective, of small deposit funds from savings banks, such process making necessary the calling in of the same money in bulk from Wall Street debtors. Nothing could be more clear than this. But the question may be carried further. Who are the heaviest debtors of the country and especially the debtors whose obligations fixed on long time, would be peculiarly affected by a debasement of the standard of value? Has any free-coinage orator ever fairly answered this? Here are the figures. The railway corporations, which in the popular mind are often lumped in haphazard with the "money sharks" of Wall Street, are debtors in the stupendous sum of $6,168,378,481, all of which amount is due and payable at stipulated dates. The great manufacturing corporations would add, by their gross indebtedness, probably 25 per cent. to this huge total. A few essential facts of this character, given proper publicity, would disperse in a moment the mists that so long have overhung the popular intelligence.

Among the speeches made in the House on the silver question, we are glad to signalize one that was in favor of the single gold standard as being the best and the fairest monetary system attainable, and the one most conducive to the prosperity of nations. The author of this speech was Mr. Tom L. Johnson of Ohio. Mr. Johnson is perhaps the one member of the House who most nearly represents the Labor party. His first nomination to Congress came from the labor unions of Cleveland, and although he is now classified as a Democrat in the party divisions of the day, his political pedigree is derived from the workingmen's organizations. Mr. Johnson has a refreshing habit of frankness. Accordingly, when Mr. Snodgrass of Tennessee, with wonder and astonishment, asked Mr. Johnson whether he really meant that the country should be "*reduced* to a single gold standard," Mr. Johnson replied that the country was now on that standard and had been so ever since 1834, except during the war and the greenback era, and that he (Johnson) was opposed to a change. "You offer no reason for it," he continued. "You tell us that prices will go up. What of it? We are not here to deal with prices. We are here to maintain a unit (or, if it were an original proposition, to select one) which will operate honestly as between these two conflicting classes." Mr. Johnson's speech was logical and excellent from beginning to end, and was the only one that we have observed which pronounced in favor of the single gold standard as against all competing devices. Mr. Johnson is still a young man. Within a few years he will find the country on his side with substantial unanimity.

The past three years have wrought a change, amounting to a revolution, in the attitude of the Democratic party on the silver question. Its extent may best be measured by comparing the vote of Monday on the 16 to 1 ratio with the votes on the same ratio in 1890 and 1892. On June 5, 1890, 102 Democrats went on record in favor of Bland's free-coinage amendment, and only 13 against it. On March 24, 1892, when the vote on the same bill was a tie in the House, 81 Democrats voted against it, 9 of this number having voted for free coinage two years before. On July 13, 1892, when Bland asked for an order to take up the Free-Coinage Bill which had passed the Senate, there were 94 Democrats against it, showing 8 more individual conversions to the cause of sound money since the 24th of March previous. On Monday for the first time an actual majority of Democrats was against free coinage, 114 voting against Bland to 100 for him; 20 further cases of individual changes having occurred since July 13, 1892. To sum up the whole, three years of discussion and the firm stand of the party's President have raised the Democratic vote against free coinage from 13 to 114, and have brought about a reversal of position in 37 Democratic Congressmen who have voted on the question in the last three Congresses.

The six youngest States of the Union, in the Northwest—the two Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, and Washington—and Nevada, which has a smaller population (only 45,761) than any one of these six, were solid on the silver side in Monday's vote, except that North Dakota's one Representative was for repeal, and one of the two from Washington. Their attitude counts for little in the House, since the seven States have only nine Representatives in all out of a total of 356 in the body; but it is a very different thing in the Senate. In that body these seven thinly settled States have almost one-sixth of all the seats filled by the forty-four States in the Union, instead of only about one-fortieth, as in the House; or would have, but for the three vacancies caused by the failure of Legislatures to elect in Montana, Wyoming, and Washington, and the refusal of the Senate to admit the appointees of the Governors. As it is, there will be eighty-five Senators qualified to vote upon the question of repeal, and, besides those from the six newest States, and Nevada, and Colorado, there will hardly be twenty-five on the silver side.

Senator Hoar gave the silverites a resounding blow on Tuesday week by presenting to the Senate a letter, written by Ernest Seyd to Hon. Samuel Hooper in 1872, ar-

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guing strongly *against* that section of the Coinage Act then pending which dropped the silver dollar from the list of coins. In other words, this letter was an argument very much in the strain and tenor of a speech by Mr. Bland or Senator Stewart, except that it contained fewer errors. Mr. Seyd's letter was called out by Mr. Hooper, who had caused a copy of the Coinage Bill to be sent to him as an expert for his criticism. Mr. Seyd had published a work entitled 'Bullion and the Foreign Exchanges,' which contained a vast deal of information of a technical sort, and which led Mr. Hooper and the Committee on Coinage of that day to take him into consultation as to these matters of detail. Mr. Seyd replied, under date of London, February 17, 1872, in a letter of thirty foolscap pages, going over the bill in all its minutiæ. When he came to section 15 (the one which dropped the silver dollar from the list of coins), he argued strongly against it on the grounds usually taken by the bimetallists. Of course the object of Mr. Hoar in bringing out and publishing this letter is to nail the falsehood that has been so many times repeated in Congress, and on the stump, and in public platforms, that Mr. Seyd came to this country in 1872 with a corruption fund raised in London to bribe Congressmen to vote for the demonetization of silver. This lie was repeated at Chicago the other day in one of the preambles of the silverite platform, in these words:

"Whereas, The debates in Congress show that the parentage of the measure was in part ascribed by friends of the bill to one Ernest Seyd, a London banker, who, it is claimed, was sent over to Washington by the moneyed classes of the Old World to secure its passage by secret and corrupt means," etc.

It has been repeatedly shown by the other writings of Seyd that he was a bimetallist, but it has never till now been shown exactly what view he took of our Coinage Act of 1873. The letter now published ought to satisfy even Bland and Stewart that they have been sacrificing one of their own allies and friends all these years, besides putting an undeserved stigma on the reputation of an honest man. But we doubt whether either of them will ever do justice to the memory of Ernest Seyd.

The decision of the Senate in the Lee Mantle case puts an end to a constitutional question in which precedents could be cited on both sides, and about which able lawyers differed. The result is to establish a precedent, which will probably not be called in question hereafter, that the failure of a Legislature to elect does not create a "vacancy" in the sense intended by the Constitution when it gives the Governor power to appoint a Senator to fill a vacancy. This must now be taken to be good law, and it also must be admitted to be good sense. It is a Legislature's business to elect a Senator, and it is well to fix on it the responsibility for leaving its State unrepresented in the Senate. The decision will have a distinct tendency to discourage partisan squabbles and personal intrigues in Senatorial elections, persisted in for the purpose of throwing the appointment into the hands of the Governor, and so, in many cases, giving victory to a candidate who could not have won in the usual way. It speaks well for the integrity of the Southern free-silver Senators who voted against Mantle, that they did not allow their desire to swell the free-silver vote in the Senate to override their convictions on the law of the case. How knotty a constitutional point was involved may be inferred from the fact that the two eminent constitutional lawyers who represent New York in the Senate took opposite sides. Senator Peffer's easy waiving of his constitutional convictions was taken as a tribute to free silver, but was it not really a tribute to Hill? The latter voted to admit the three free-silver Senators, and how could Peffer do less? The alliance of the two is thus shown to be firmly cemented, and the fact that Peffer follows Hill's lead as often as Hill follows Peffer's.

The resolution introduced by Senator Peffer of Kansas and supported by Senator Hill of New York asks the Secretary of the Treasury to inform the Senate "whether, and in what respect, the national banks, or any of them, in the cities of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, are being now conducted in violation of law; whether said banks are paying depositors' checks promptly in lawful money, and whether said banks, or any of them, are demanding rates of interest higher than those provided by law for the loan of money or in discounting notes and bills." The apparent object of the resolution is to shut up all the national banks in the country, to put them into the hands of receivers, and to have their assets distributed to their depositors and other creditors in the course of five or ten years. This policy would require the forced payment under legal proceedings of all the bills receivable of the bank. A receiver would have no power to grant extensions, or to do anything but wind up the business, although the Comptroller of the Currency might exercise his discretion to allow a bank to reopen if it could show a fair promise of meeting its obligations on demand. Section 5191 of the Revised Statutes provides that the banks shall keep a certain amount of reserve as against deposits, and provides that whenever the reserve falls below the percentage fixed by the law, the Comptroller *may* notify the bank to make it good within thirty days, and that if the bank fails to do so, then the Comptroller *may*, with the concurrence of the Secretary of the Treasury, appoint a receiver to wind up the business of the bank. This is the only way in which the authorities at Washington can take original jurisdiction of a bank's failure to pay its deposits on demand, and even here it is left to the discretion first of the Comptroller, and afterwards of the Secretary, to take extreme measures or not. Hence if the Peffer resolution should be adopted by the Senate, it would be of no direct effect. But it might have a very serious indirect effect. It might alarm the country and lead to a race of diligence among depositors. In other words, it might lead to runs on the banks generally.

Gov. Boies of Iowa seems to have secured much the same sort of hold upon the people of Iowa as Gov. Russell upon those of Massachusetts, and his renomination by acclamation in last week's Convention, despite his desire to retire at the end of his second term, was made in response to a manifest popular demand. The platform of the Convention shows a distinct gain in the party on the financial question. In the last Gubernatorial campaign the Iowa Democrats "demanded the free coinage of silver, and that it be made a full legal tender for all debts, public and private." Now they "demand the immediate repeal of the silver purchase clause of the Sherman Act," and leave the question of further coinage of silver to the future. Gov. Boies is undoubtedly the strongest candidate whom the Democrats could nominate, and it is possible that he may again carry the State. Much depends upon whether the contest turns chiefly upon State or upon national issues, and much also upon the development of the revolt already started in the Republican party against the policy adopted by the recent State Convention of surrendering prohibition.

Some of the Republican organs, the New York *Tribune* among them, are trying to raise the sectional issue over the constitution of the House committees, because a majority of the chairmanships go to members from the South. The reason is not simply because a majority of the Democratic members come from the South, but also because so large a proportion of the Southern Representatives are old members, who thus have superior claims over men with only brief terms of service. The same sort of complaint used to be heard from Western Republicans against the great influence of New England in the committees of the Senate, which was due to her custom of reëlecting Senators term after term, until mere length of service entitled them to priority. The real question is not whether Illinois or West Virginia gets the Chairmanship of the Ways and Means, or Indiana or Texas that of Appropriations, but whether Wilson is a better choice than Springer for the one, and Sayres better than Holman for the other. As even the *Tribune* does not dispute either of these propositions, it is obvious that no partisan advantage can be secured by this weak attempt to raise the sectional issue.

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We find in the *Manufacturers' Record*, a protectionist weekly of Baltimore, an amusing exposure of one batch of the high-tariff "statistics" with which Mr. Robert P. Porter, late Superintendent of the Census, is stuffing the daily issues of the *Press* of this city. He is in the habit of placing at the head of his editorial columns what he calls "Tariff Pictures," and it is upon one of these that the *Manufacturers' Record* pounces. The text of the picture was as follows: "The first six months of 1892 saw twenty-one new textile factories started in the Southern States. The corresponding period of 1893, with free trade in prospect, saw only nine." The *Record* asks "where the *Press* obtained these figures," which is a totally superfluous question. Porter made them, as he is in the habit of doing when he needs a new "picture." That he did not go to any authoritative source for them is shown by the *Record*, which says that instead of twenty-one new textile companies having been started in the South in the first half of 1892, the true number was thirty-one, and that instead of only nine in the first half of 1893 the true number was forty-eight. It gives the name and location of each of the forty-eight, and says of Porter's figures that they are "entirely absurd," and that the "textile industries of the South are not suffering from free-trade prospects or any other cause." It ventures to hope that "the *Press* will be kind enough to correct its unfortunate mistake and at the same time reveal the source of its misinformation." The idea! How could the "Tariff Picture" business be kept up on such a ridiculous system as that?

On May 12, 1893, the cruiser *Atlanta* sailed from New York for Nicaragua, under command of Capt. Higginson. On May 16 the Secretary of the Navy issued an order detaching Capt. Higginson from his ship, on the ground that he had been dilatory in putting to sea, and that he had reported the *Atlanta* to be in need of repairs, although it was known at Washington that she was in good condition and fit to "go round the world." The charge of delay in coaling and provisioning the ship was at once disproved by the testimony of the Brooklyn Navy-yard officials, who said the work had been done with all possible speed. The *Atlanta* has since returned to this country and been examined by a board of inspection. They report her to have long been in a "deplorable and disgraceful condition," and state that the "accumulations of rust and other material that threatened her usefulness" had been concealed from the Secretary of the Navy, former boards of inspection having done their work in a "purely perfunctory" manner.

The outgivings of the News Bureau of the Navy Department, in view of these revelations, are highly instructive. Secretary Herbert is thoroughly indignant at the way he has been misled. The publication of the report on the *Atlanta* was directed by him "as a partial censure of officers derelict in their duties," and there are strong hints of a court-martial for some of them. But there is not a syllable about the outrage inflicted on Capt. Higginson for asserting in May what the Secretary has had proved to him in August to have been the exact truth. There is not a word in confession of the fact that the information the Department relied upon when it disciplined Capt. Higginson so severely was, in fact, entirely untrustworthy, nor is there any suggestion of an apology and amends to the wronged officer. To make such apology and amends would be the way one gentleman would treat another, but that is not the way the Navy Department treats the men whom it puts in command of American men-of-war. They have to be condemned unheard, are denied a public inquiry after condemnation, and have to depend for service and salary and reputation upon the whim of their superior officer as absolutely as if they were under the Turkish Government. We trust, however, that Secretary Herbert will not stop with chastising the men who deceived him, but will yet exonerate, as openly as he disgraced, on the strength of inaccurate information, an officer whose only fault was telling the truth about the condition of his ship.

Mr. Blount has returned from Honolulu and laid his report on Hawaiian affairs before the State Department, having nothing to say to the newspapers. Meanwhile, Japan has supplanted England as a bugbear to frighten the American people into annexing Hawaii. Some time ago a clerical writer in the *Independent* informed us that if the United States did not annex Hawaii, Japan would do so, and since then there have been various rumors and rumblings about the intentions and machinations of the Japanese in the Islands. All of these have collapsed on investigation, and there is no evidence that Japan is less indifferent to the political fate of Hawaii than is Great Britain. Yet there is no doubt that she has one substantial grievance against the Hawaiian Government, if she chose to urge it. In 1871 she concluded a treaty with Hawaii, under which her citizens were guaranteed "the same privileges as may have been, or may hereafter be, granted to the citizens or subjects of any other nation." Yet by the amended Hawaiian Constitution of 1887 the right of suffrage was bestowed on "male residents of Hawaiian, American, or European birth," but not of Japanese birth, although Japanese had previously exercised the franchise and were certainly as much entitled to it, under their treaty, as were Europeans. It is needless to point out what would have happened had such a discrimination been made against Americans.

The Pope took occasion, shortly before the French general election, to reaffirm his wish that the Catholics of France should accept the republic. In a letter to the Cardinal Archbishop of Bordeaux, published ten days before the election took place, he greatly disapproved of the audacious conduct of certain men, who, calling themselves Catholics and boasting of their attachment to the religion of their fathers, were violently attacking the leaders of the Church in France, and even the Supreme Pontiff, all for the sake of party success and in opposition to the peace of the country. This was aimed pretty straight at the Royalists, who had to suffer another blow from the church authorities in the shape of a pastoral letter sent to all the churches in Paris by Cardinal Richard on August 13, ordering prayers for the country, on occasion of the approaching elections, and saying: "The sons of the Church will listen to the voice of the Sovereign Pontiff directing them to accept without reservation, and with the perfect loyalty which becomes a Christian, our existing institutions." The Royalists well know whom to thank for the heavy losses they suffered on August 20.

Like the United States, Italy is afflicted with a dearth of currency, although in her case it is to be feared that the Government is upon the verge of insolvency, while in ours the trouble is not due to inability to meet our obligations. A well-known house in Milan has gone so far as to issue money upon its own account, stamping its name upon coins of base metal with the value at which they are redeemable. These coins have been paid to the employees of the house, and the tradesmen of the city have generally accepted them. The small silver coin of Italy, it seems, has been exported to a great extent to France, just as our dimes and quarters withdrew to Canada when the stress of the civil war induced our Government to give up specie payments. At Milan, also, the expedient of making checks drawn upon the banks do service as money in paying wages, with which we are becoming familiar, seems to have been tried with success. Another device suggested is that of cutting notes for ten francs and five francs into quarters, but this is a counsel of despair. Equally futile is the attempt to keep the precious metals in the country by punishing the men who make a trade of exporting coins to France and Switzerland. The increase of the bronze coinage and the issue of one-franc paper notes will be to a certain extent effective. Having no intrinsic value, they will not be exported, but they will, on the other hand, expel from circulation what silver coin is still left. The financial outlook is extremely bad, and very radical changes must be made in the policy of the Government before it can improve.

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EXIT SILVER.

THE overwhelming majority by which the Silver-Purchase Law was repealed in the House, a majority of more than two to one, is indicative of the movement of public opinion during the present year, and especially during the past two months. If there ever was any doubt about the ultimate passage of the bill in the Senate, the impressive majority in the House would remove it. But in fact there never was a doubt about the passage of the bill after the President had called Congress together in extraordinary session and sent in his admirable message on the public finances. The victory is in one sense a victory for Mr. Cleveland, but in a larger sense it is a victory of the people over a plausible and widespread delusion. To gain this victory has cost them, in their joint and corporate capacity, about four hundred million dollars. The delusion has cost many individuals their entire fortunes through the recent panic. It has brought poverty and desolation temporarily upon the silver-mining States. It is doubtful if the law has been of benefit to any human being, since it is doubtful whether the artificial demand of our Government for silver bullion has not been overbalanced by the lessened demand of other governments and peoples, who have seen from the beginning that this artificial demand must some day come to an end with disastrous results. Fortunately, the country can afford to lose four or five hundred million dollars. It lost ten times that sum (North and South together) during the war, and yet recovered in a surprisingly short space of time.

There will probably be some who will say, with Mr. Bland, that they intend to keep up the fight. It makes little difference what they do. They were stronger on Monday than they will ever be again. They have had their Waterloo, and they are now going to their St Helena. There was a certain plausibility in the buying and coining of silver on Government account. It had the appearance of adding to the supply of money, and that is always attractive to the multitude, who are not accustomed to close reasoning and are not skilled in detecting half-truths. But all that delusion has passed away. The great majority of the common people can see now that the speedy and regular exchange of property—of goods for goods, of service for service—depends upon confidence in the standard of value, and that when this confidence is undermined the whole fabric of industry is shaken. This lesson has been learned sufficiently for the present generation. We have really been on the gold standard all the time. We have been there *de jure* as well as *de facto*, but there has been a dispute as to whether we should remain there. That dispute has been settled in favor of the gold standard, and nobody will be able in our time to reopen the question.

The effects of this vote on the business of the country will be healing and restorative. Those who are actually down will not immediately get on their feet. There has been too much dislocation of machinery to put all in working order again at once. But we anticipate a much speedier revival and return to normal conditions than has ever been observed after a panic as severe and widespread as this has been. There was some cause for panic conditions aside from lack of confidence in the standard of value, but it was not sufficient, in our judgment, to produce a panic in which the banks would be obliged to club their resources in the form of loan certificates, still less to cause a premium on currency over bankable funds. We now look for the early disappearance of this premium, which will be evidence of the cessation of hoarding.

We must not shut our eyes, however, to the fact that the revenues of the Government have fallen off heavily, while its expenditures remain the same as before. This is the explanation of the sinking of the Treasury gold reserve at a time when we are not exporting gold, but on the contrary importing it largely. It means that the Treasury has no available balance except the gold reserve, and that the difference between daily income and outgo is necessarily taken from this reserve. But, with the Silver-Purchase Act out of the way, this will not be a cause for alarm. The Government will have to borrow until a balance is established in the budget, but its credit will now be good. All the bonds that it issues will necessarily be gold bonds, whether so specified or not.

THE OPPOSITION IN ENGLAND.

IT is inevitable under any form of popular government that there should be incessant pandering to the electors. What we call party government is merely government by a combination of men who yield some of their convictions for the sake of enforcing others. Under this necessity only men of great wisdom and sturdy honesty can successfully maintain their independence. To use a physical metaphor, they may be said to be of such mass as to cause others to gravitate towards them, while smaller men yield to the attraction of others. The common run of politicians are incapable of conceiving any enlightened and comprehensive policy and working steadily towards its attainment. They are concerned above all things to find out what the people want, and to appear to anticipate their wishes. If any considerable number of the American people were to declare that the Government ought to stop the earth from turning towards the east and set it spinning towards the west, there is little doubt that the platforms of both parties would very soon contain planks expressing profound respect and friendliness for westward rotation, and declaring the party intention to be to pass wise laws looking in that direction as soon as practicable.

This anxiety to gratify popular desires, with which we are so familiar in this country, has been painfully manifest, as we have from time to time shown, in the career of the present French Republic. It has been the glory of English politics to have had comparatively little of such humiliating leadership, and its annals are full of splendid examples of statesmanlike definitions of policy and statesmanlike independence of conduct. But England is changing from aristocracy to democracy, and with the advantages attending this change there must come some losses. The candidate of the future, if he cannot rely upon the prestige of his rank, and is not himself of commanding character, will be tempted to commend himself to his constituents by subserviency to popular demands.

The tendency in this direction is, we think, deplorably manifested in the present attitude of the Opposition in England. Having failed to succeed upon the issue of home rule for Ireland, they are now failing in determining the general policy of the new Conservative party. This failure does not seem to be due to any special incompatibility between the opinions of the Liberal-Unionists and those of the Tories. It is true that the old Tories are protectionists, but protection is as impracticable in England as a return to the Stuart dynasty, and whatever regard for it is from time to time professed is purely sentimental. The Liberal Unionists came from the moderate, not from the radical, wing of the Liberal party, and they have fared peaceably enough with their new associates. There are many differences of opinion in such a conglomeration, but so far these differences have not seemed to be so vital as to threaten the permanency of the present Liberal-Conservative alliance. Nothing in the nature of the parties to this alliance should prevent their agreeing upon a wise and truly conservative policy.

Unfortunately they have shown little capacity to appreciate the necessities of the situation. They have tried to delay the passage of the Home-Rule Bill by much speaking, and when their course made the application of closure necessary they have complained of being choked off. It is true that closure is not in accordance with the precedents of Parliamentary government, but neither is it in accordance with these precedents to talk indefinitely so as to block legislation. This is not discussion, but obstruction, and the party resorting to it is primarily responsible for the lowering of Parliamentary standards. Outside of Parliament there are other manifestations of inability to conceive and expound a statesmanlike policy. The nature of these manifestations is indicated by the programme of an association formed by the so-called Conservative party called "The London League," the purpose of which is to draw

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voters from the Liberal party by offering them whatever they are supposed to desire. To attract the radical element, the very use of the word "moderate" in London politics is to be discouraged, and all the demands of the Socialists are to be sympathetically considered.

The extent to which this "conservative" league is prepared to go in bidding for the votes of a class that is in a way to cause a good deal of mischief to England, is apparent from the details of the programme. More municipal officers are to be appointed, great schemes of public works for the employment of "surplus labor" are to be undertaken, and, of course, whatever wages are fixed by the trade-unions are to be paid. To meet the expense, special taxes are to be imposed upon the estates of deceased Londoners and upon the incomes of the living. Tolls are to be levied, and an octroi is to be collected upon the provisions brought to the metropolis. The whole matter of leasing houses is to be regulated by municipal authority, and in general London is to be governed very much on the lines which the Municipal Council of Paris would like to follow in that city. It is unnecessary to comment upon the imbecility and wickedness of these proposals. If the Conservative party is to win with such a platform as this, its return to power will be a sad day for England's greatness.

We cannot but regard Mr. Balfour's recent speech in favor of silver as in effect a bid for the votes of the believers in cheap money. It is true that he disclaimed all official responsibility for his sentiments and professed to be merely expressing his individual convictions. But, as was pointed out by the London *Times*, it is impossible for a man in Mr. Balfour's position to separate himself from his representative character. The question of bimetallism may become a legislative question, and it would be absurd to maintain that the choice of voters would not be affected by their knowledge of the private opinions of candidates. There was no occasion whatever for Mr. Balfour's silver speech, as he himself declared, except the display of academic oratory, and, although the motive may not have been distinctly present to his mind, it is hard to believe that he was unaware that the expression of his sentiments would attract a certain element to the support of the Conservative party. It is not a statesmanlike way of outlining a public policy. We do not think that Mr. Balfour is a demagogue; but if a demagogue wished to learn what the people wanted before committing himself to the support of positive measures, we conceive that he would do about as Mr. Balfour has done.

THE CONGRESS OF SOCIALISTS.

THE international gathering of Socialists which recently held its sessions at Zurich, although not an event of extreme importance, is yet deserving of a passing notice. The increase of the Socialistic vote in Germany and of the Socialistic outcry elsewhere necessarily draws increased attention to the theories and measures of this element, and governments dependent upon popular support are not disposed to keep themselves in ignorance of what is alleged to be desirable by any considerable number of the people. So far as the governments of Europe are concerned, however, they need not disquiet themselves over the recent Congress. No new demands were formulated, and, owing to modifications that took place in the membership, the tone of the resolutions finally adopted was unexpectedly subdued.

These modifications were caused by certain acute differences of opinion developed in discussing the platform to be adopted. The more radical delegates were unwilling to commit themselves to a declaration in favor of "political activity," as they hold existing political institutions in abhorrence, and they protested against the suppression of their views. In spite of their appeals to the motto, "Proletarians of all countries, unite!" which adorned the walls of the building where the Congress met, these radicals were finally ejected, but with no more serious consequences than a few bloody noses and torn coats. They organized a kind of side-show, of inferior dimensions but of superior unanimity, and adopted a full anarchistic programme, denouncing the Congress which they had quitted as no better than the worst of bourgeois tyrannies. The more moderate delegates, however, were of the opinion expressed by one of their number, that liberty of speech was a good thing, but should be kept within proper limits, and proceeded to the discussion of international solidarity and universal peace in a cloud of tobacco-smoke contributed by both male and female members.

Although sixteen nations were nominally represented in the Congress, one-fourth of the 412 delegates were from Switzerland, 92 from Germany, 65 from England, and 34 from Austria; and these delegates, with those from Italy, practically controlled the proceedings. The French, Belgian, and Dutch delegates, who in general acted together, were steadily voted down, not without unpleasant references to the "triple alliance" and to "brutal Germans and English savages." In fact, so far from promoting international solidarity, the Congress seems to have aroused strong national feeling. The Germans stood for what may be called parliamentary socialism, the French for the revolutionary type. The tendency of the speeches of the German delegates was to favor the attainment of the socialistic aim by making use of existing political institutions, to secure Socialism by getting a majority of the people to be Socialists. The tendency of the opposing faction was to scorn such a policy of compromise as this, and to bring on the conflict with "capitalism" at once by resistance to its oppression. As to the ultimate end, there seems to have been substantial agreement: the government of the middle classes is to be overthrown, and international peace to be obtained through the rule of the proletariat.

It was in regard to the attitude to be taken towards military service that the most significant differences of opinion were developed. As to war in itself, while it was admitted that it might be necessary to do some fighting in order to obtain the Socialistic ideal, yet no mercy was shown to it, one set of resolutions offered explicitly declaring that war was to be henceforth abolished. But the proposition of the French delegates and those of the Low Countries, that all workmen should respond to any declaration of war by refusing to do military duty and by a general strike, failed of adoption. It was urged with great force in its favor that such a measure would paralyze any army that attempted mobilization. The telegraphs and the railways would become useless, and if the Government tried to suppress the mutiny by force, the prisons could not contain those who would have to be arrested. But a delegate from Russian Poland emphatically warned the Congress that "the hideous vampire of Russia," in the event of the armies of other nations being demoralized, would swoop down upon Europe, and instead of being under the reign of socialism and progress the proletariat would find itself under a Cossack despotism. This practical consideration did not admit of any satisfactory reply on the part of the revolutionary element, and their opponents urged that the true way to paralyze militarism was to fill the barracks and the parliaments with the socialistic spirit. Eventually it was resolved that the "International-Revolutionary-Socialist-Democracy" should in every country and with all the forces in its power rise up against the chauvinistic appetites of the dominant classes; that it should draw closer the bonds of solidarity between the workmen of every land; that it should work without cessation to conquer capitalism, which had divided humanity into two hostile camps and ranged peoples against each other. With the suppression of the classes, war would disappear. The overthrow of capitalism would mean universal peace. Finally, as a practical measure, it was recommended that Socialistic Deputies should refuse to vote for military expenditures and should demand disarmament.

Concerning the universal eight-hour day and the character of the observance of the first day of May, there was a like difference of opinion among the delegates. Those who demanded the eight-hour day (without any reduction of wages) and the abolition of piece-work were outvoted, and were obliged to content themselves with a mild recommendation that the governments of the world should be appealed to to hold an international conference upon the subject. It was decided also that the 1st

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of May should not be celebrated either by a universal strike or by a universal cessation of labor, the English delegates contending that in their country workmen who abandoned their work did not always get it back again, and the Germans adding that with them the Government had made oppressive laws which inflicted penalties upon workmen for breaking their contracts. A judicious compromise ordained the demonstration upon the 1st of May, with cessation of work wherever it was possible. With this resolution the work of the Congress was in effect completed, and it adjourned for three years, to meet then in London. Upon the whole, its proceedings, although hampered by the diversity of tongues and the necessity of oral translations, were orderly, largely owing to the enforcement of time limits upon speakers. This very orderliness, however, foreshadows disunion, for the resolutions of the Congress are too tame to satisfy ardent radicals. Such a programme would transform the Socialists into a "bourgeois" party, and the revolutionary element cannot be expected to content itself long with what is but conservatism in disguise.

THE LIBRARIANS AT CHICAGO.

THE Chicago meeting of the American Library Association had two sides, one summing up the past, the other promising much for the future. According to the wise plan of the President, Mr. Dewey, the subjects were so assigned and the papers so written as to form when collected together a hand-book of library economy, treating every important branch of the subject, and exhibiting a résumé of the results that have thus far been reached by the discussions of librarians at previous meetings and in their organ, the *Library Journal*. Great stress was laid upon this requirement, that the points of agreement and the questions still remaining debatable should be exhibited. The advice of the President was generally followed and the outcome will be a book, to be published by the Bureau of Education, that may well stand side by side with the instructive report issued by the same Bureau in connection with the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876. Moreover, the Association had voted to make as complete a comparative exhibition as possible of library methods and appliances, and to show a model library, chosen, arranged, catalogued, and put on the shelves according to the best accepted ideas of the time. This, as our readers are aware, has been done. There is always a throng in the library corner of the Government Building, consisting in some measure of trustees and others interested in libraries, examining and questioning and making notes. No doubt the exhibit will bear fruit in the adoption of better methods throughout the country, and in a greater interest taken in the subject by the intelligent public; perhaps also it will lead to the founding of more libraries. There is something very attractive in the aspect of the "A. L. A. Library." The books are new, they are neatly arranged, when examined they are found to be all worth having, and one can hardly conceive that any inhabitant of a library-lacking town should go away without a longing to see those six book-stacks duplicated in his own village. In this country such longings are apt to receive satisfaction sooner or later.

So much for the past. As to the future, it was not intended that any of the papers should bring forward new plans; but it is hard to repress the inventiveness of Americans. Mr. Iles's suggestion, and indeed promise, of a weekly index to periodicals, kept up by means of the linotype, opens a most attractive prospect not to librarians alone. There have been weekly indexes before, but they had the defects of their qualities. The frequency of their issue did indeed keep them reasonably near date, but also made the looking up of anything more than a month old wearisome beyond endurance. An index which each week includes all the previous indexes of the quarter will be a blessing to searchers.

Another promise for the future is to be found in the Rudolph Indexer. It may be remembered that when the Association returned from California, it brought home rumors of a great discovery which was as yet a secret, but was expected to reduce the cost of cataloguing by half or three-quarters, and to do away with the need of brains in it altogether. When the secret came out a year later, it appeared that cataloguers would have as much need of attention and judgment and knowledge as ever, and that the invention was rather a way of presenting the catalogue to the public than a new method of making it. Even this, however, appears, from the specimens shown in the A.L.A. Comparative Exhibit, to be of importance enough to justify the Californian excitement. When the card catalogue ousted the book catalogue thirty or forty years ago, it justified its claims to the exclusive possession of the field by the fact that it could be kept up to date by daily or even hourly additions in a way that was impossible to its predecessor. Yet there have always been those who preferred the printed or written page to the written or printed card because it gave them the satisfaction of seeing many titles at the same time, and did not compel them to pick over the cards one by one to find a desired title. They would even consider the cost of printing and the trouble of looking through the inevitable supplements slight in comparison with the handling of those provoking bits of cardboard. To them the Rudolph system is a boon, for it has the great merit of the book—simultaneous view of many titles—with what was previously the exclusive merit of the card catalogue, viz., absolute contemporaneity. It is exhibited in three forms (suited to different ends)—drawers, books, and a machine. The first shows two long pages at once, the second four, and the third five pages. In quickness of adjustment and of use it is far ahead of the Leyden, the Sacconi, and other card-book attempts to do away with the defects of the card catalogue; and it shows at once ten times as many titles as they can do. Like them, however, and like the card catalogue itself, it has one great inferiority to the printed catalogue: it must be used in the library and not taken home. But for every other purpose it deserves to be called, as it was by one of the librarians, "the coming catalogue."

The Indexer Company, however, are not content with this, it appears, but wish to satisfy the claim made for the contrivance at first, that it would relieve the brains of the cataloguer. They now think of establishing a central cataloguing and classifying bureau, by which titles of new books can be furnished to libraries as soon as the books are published, possibly with descriptive or characterizing notes, and certainly with the classification according to the three systems most in vogue, the "dictionary," "decimal," and "expansive." With most commendable liberality, they propose to print the titles not merely on slips for the "Indexer," but also on cards which can be used in its rival, the card catalogue, by those libraries who prefer their present way of putting titles before the public or shrink from the cost of a change. The scheme also includes the preparation of a large stock of titles of the most common books, so that a library just starting would find its catalogue ready-made by selection from this stock. These older titles, we should suppose, would be printed only on the slips, on the supposition that no new library would now commence with a card catalogue. Large libraries no doubt will always keep their force of cataloguers, for their work must be more elaborate than this is intended to be; but when the Rudolph system is in full operation, there seems to be no reason why, in libraries of thirty thousand volumes or less, there should be any cataloguers at all; or, if they should still be found necessary, their work would be much simplified and aided by the bureau.

The Association have long been talking of the need of coöperative, or, more properly speaking, central cataloguing. It is a commonplace to insist on the wastefulness of a thousand persons in a thousand libraries all cataloguing and classifying the same book instead of having it done by one person once for all. Various schemes have been suggested, but no one has had the nerve and the money to carry them out. Once a feeble attempt was made, but it came to nothing. It needs great perseverance fully to establish such a work. It is not enough to convince the public that the scheme is good. The libraries, whose inertia is very great, must be made to believe that it will succeed, must in fact see it in successful operation, before they will feel justified in taking hold and helping it to succeed. But if the movement can survive the period of delay and discouragement, there can be no doubt that it will render very great services to all the smaller libraries, which sometimes cannot afford and sometimes cannot obtain competent assistance; and it will not be useless even to the larger ones. To new libraries, unhampered by traditions and by already having catalogues constructed and books arranged on the old methods, it would be invaluable. It would furnish lists of books to buy from, and, even before the books were in the library, the cards would be ready for the catalogue. Ordinarily a new library waits weeks and even months while a busy corps of writers is cataloguing and arranging the stock of books with which it starts. No need for that if this bureau were at hand. We hope that the scheme will not fall through, and that its promoters will be able to face the certain discouragements that await them.

THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.—V.

FINE ARTS: THE FRENCH PICTURES AND THE LOAN COLLECTION.

CHICAGO, July, 1893.

THE collection of French pictures is not as good a one as might have been brought to Chicago if men like Cazin, Puvis de Chavannes, and Dagnan-Bouveret, who are not represented at all, had some of their good works here, and if others, such as Gervex and Aimé Morot, who have pictures, had instead sent better ones that have been left at home. If the French, too, had included in their exhibition works by men who have died recently, as the British, the Americans, and others have done, we might have had pictures by Delau-

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nay, Baudry, and Meissonier, but it was more logical to leave them out. It looks very much as if Old Salon men had had the most influence in Paris when the collection was got together, and the change in the fine-arts commissionership (made when Mr. Antonin Proust resigned on account of his connection with the Panama scandal) disarranged plans at a late day, and probably had a good deal to do with the incompleteness of the French *envoi*. Its incompleteness is apparent, and the division of the Paris artists into two camps four years ago is largely the cause of it. Such as it is, however, it is by far the best exhibition made by any of the foreign nations. The seriousness of purpose and the general excellence of the work from the technical point of view, especially the thorough knowledge of construction shown in both the figure and landscape pictures, make it superior to the American exhibition in these respects. As has been said before, the artists of the United States show more diversity of aim and individuality of expression than any others.

The French maintain their supremacy as painters of portraits. The realistic, uncompromising way in which Bonnat depicts Renan may not please a great many people, but there can be no two opinions about the power of the work. His "Portrait of Cardinal Lavigerie," an imposing full-length figure clad in red and black robes and placed seated squarely in the middle of the canvas, is also realistic, and so well done that criticism finds nothing to seize upon unless one quarrels with Bonnat's methods in their entirety. I see no reason why any one should, but the fashion of the day seems to be for so-called sympathetic painting and against everything that is vigorous and hardy. There is plenty of science in Bonnat's work, but it will be well to look elsewhere for the tenderer qualities. They will scarcely be found in the three portraits by Carolus-Duran, which are most cleverly painted and rather effective in their color schemes, nor in Debat-Ponsan's excellent study of a lady in black, "In My Greenhouse," though it is wonderfully well observed and not unsympathetically painted; but "Parisian at a Ball at the Élysée" by Duez, a full-length figure of a lady in white standing in a garden lit with Chinese lanterns, is refined in the good sense of the word and charming in aspect. There is sympathetic painting, also, in Roll's portrait of two young girls—much more of it than one might expect to find in the work of so sturdy a realist as he. Another portrait by Roll, "Trotting," a large canvas showing a boy on his pony speeding through the woods, is one of the best things in all the French galleries. Courtois's "Portrait of Madame Gauthereau" is said to have had a notable success in Paris, by one of those strange turns which popular opinion is subject to, for a portrait of the same lady by Sargent, painted before this, and to which this one by Courtois bears an extraordinary resemblance in arrangement and pose of the figure, provoked the most hostile criticism when it was shown at the Salon. Mr. Courtois's portrait is very delicately drawn, but painted in a cold, careful way, quite lacking in the *entrain* that distinguished Mr. Sargent's work. An excellent portrait of an etcher before his table by Mathey, one of a lady in a gown of figured stuff by Doucet, and Yvon's official "Portrait of Carnot, President of the French Republic" are a few other notable portraits in the French galleries. One more that is sure to attract great attention from its subject, and is deserving of great praise for its artistic treatment and its masterly interpretation of character, is "Portrait of His Holiness Pope Leo XIII.," by Chartran. One need only look at another portrait of the Pope, by Lenbach, in the German section, in which the head and hands of the sitter are shown in a similar conception of the subject, to see how good Chartran's is.

French painters are generally very good draughtsmen. In the schools they are thoroughly taught, and all through their artistic career the importance of drawing is upheld by themselves and their critics. What they do with their skill in drawing, once it is acquired, is another matter; but very few pictures by men even of comparatively modest position are ever seen to which the reproach of bad drawing or ill understood construction may be applied. Mr. Collin is quite as skilful a draughtsman as Mr. Bouguereau, but his work never looks insincere; he possesses great facility, but manages in spite of it to retain a sufficient amount of naïveté to invest his pictures with some of that sort of charm that is inherent in all painting in which truth has been sought for, not glibly noted as an old story. The large picture, "On the Sea Coast," which represents a group of nude young women dancing a round on the sands, while it is painted with the greatest cleverness, bears an aspect of sincerity which shows that the painter's skill has not run away with him. This picture, which is painted in a very light key and is full of delicate color, evokes an instructive comparison with Mr. Harrison's "Bathers" in the American section. The two artists have undertaken similar tasks, and it is interesting to see what each of them has made out of his subject.

Painting religious subjects (generally scenes in the life of Christ) with a modern setting and figures clad in the clothes men wear in our day, was begun some few years ago by the German painter Fritz von Uhde, and in the French galleries there are three such pictures. "The Host," by Jacques Émile Blanche, is commonplace enough, and the figure of Christ at the table, in a gown of blue and white stuff, surrounded by a family group, seems incongruous. The picture is well painted, but the artist has somehow fallen short of success; indeed, while the type of "The Host" is not an unpleasing one, there is something in the work that makes a repelling impression. Lhermitte's "The Friend of the Lowly" gives no such impression, but his picture is not interesting. Not much has been made out of the types of character in the peasant man and woman and the child who are in the group, and the figure of Christ is ordinary and expressionless. It is a very good composition, but the tone of the canvas is brown and dull. "The Descent from the Cross," by Jean Béraud, with the scene laid on the heights of Montmartre, Paris lying wrapped in hazy mistiness below and a group of people at the foot of the cross, among whom are workingmen and some women, is about as lifeless in color as Lhermitte's picture, but, unlike it, is distinctly impressive. Monotone, or something nearly approaching it, seems to be thought requisite by the artists in painting these religious pictures, for, besides the two works here by Béraud and Lhermitte, Von Uhde's "Last Supper," exhibited at Paris in 1889, and much talked about, is sombre and dingy.

Great variety of subject is found in the pictures in the French section, from Bouguereau's "Our Lady of the Angels" and Maignan's "William the Conqueror" to Raffaelli's somewhat eccentric characterizations. The last-named painter is in vogue at present, and his peculiar style is exemplified in three pictures. "The Grandfather" is a very good bit of painting, but "The Peasants of Plougasnou, Brittany," is positively ugly with its harsh, scratchy technique; and "In the Plain, Horses on the Road," is black, wriggling in *facture*, and disjointed in effect. A much better picture than either of these is "The Absinthe Drinkers" in the Loan Collection. Good genre pictures are Friant's "Shadows Lifted," Bramtot's "The First Communion," Richemont's "Sacrifice," Binet's "The Lovers," and Lhermitte's "Repose." Jules Breton's "The Pardon of Kergoat" shows traces of failing powers, and Besnard's "Two Ponies Harassed by Flies" by no means well represents one of the ablest and most original of modern painters. Jean Paul Laurens's "The Seven Troubadours" and "Christopher Columbus," solidly painted, well composed, and sober and reserved in color; Tissot's four low-toned canvases depicting the story of the Prodigal Son; a good military picture, "Combat in a Village," by Émile Boutigny; "The Ribbon Maker," by Ernest Bordes; and a vast canvas, "Flowery Spring," by P. Franc Lamy, with nude figures in a garden—an ambitious conception, hardly justified in its execution and rather cold in color—are other notable works. Fourié's "Spring," with nymphs chasing a satyr through a wood, is big and bad—the one conspicuously bad picture, indeed, in the French galleries in which painting of the nude is the *raison d'être*. Two delightful small pictures are "Venice" and "In Sicily," by Aman-Jean, the first a head of a woman drawn with great subtlety and charm, and refined in color.

The presence of good pictures among the landscapes by men who were unknown only a short time ago is remarkable in the French section. It is a fact worth noting also in the work by figure-painters, and shows that the exhibition includes more of what has been produced in the last two or three years in Paris than "standard works," such as Great Britain, for example, sends in great numbers, although many of them were seen at Paris in 1889, and some even in 1878. The French collection is more up to date, and, in so far as it is representative at all, is more truly representative of the actual status of the fine arts in France at the present moment than those sent by some of the other nations are of theirs. Guillemet, Pelouse, Zuber, Dameron, Montenard, and Vuillefroy are among the well-known names of landscape or cattle-painters whose works are here; Harpignies, Cazin, Français, Bernier, Rapin, and Busson some of those that are absent. Two of Jan-Monchablon's remarkably faithful transcriptions of wide stretches of country, full of minute detail but broad in effect; poetical evening motives by Lagarde; a strong sunset by Diéterle; delicately observed street scenes by Billotte and Pujol; a fine early morning effect, though a trifle too icy for autumn frost, by Balouzet; an excellent sunset over marshlands by Damoye; evening and morning effects by Pointelin; and cattle-pieces by Barillot and Marais, are some of the best pictures by newer men. While the landscapes in the French galleries reveal no preëminent talent, there is a manifest improvement in the tendencies shown by the younger painters over what appeared at Paris in 1889 in restricting the size of their canvases to reasonable dimensions, and in the effort to obtain color quality as well as form and truth of values. The French need some of the color feeling that the Americans already possess, and the Americans are lacking in the strong sense of form which characterizes all the French work. When these qualities are attained, we may expect to see masters on either side of the water.

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The Loan Collection of Foreign Masterpieces owned in the United States does not deserve its title. There are great names in the catalogue and fine pictures in the gallery, but in most cases the artists are not represented by masterpieces. There are some, however, to which the term applies in the fullest sense of the word. The great majority of the pictures are by French painters, and the works from other schools may be quickly enumerated: "A Reading from Homer," by Alma Tadema, landscapes by Bonington, Constable, and George Morland, three animal pictures by John M. Swan, and "Portrait of Joachim," by G. F. Watts, from the English school; "The Beach at Portici," by Fortuny, from Spain; "Springtime and Love," by Michetti, from Italy; "The Bookstall," by Baron Leys, and "You Are Welcome," by Jan van Beers, from Belgium; "A Country Festival" and "The Potato Harvest," by Knaus, and "A Sewing Bee in Holland," by Von Uhde, from Germany; "Canal in Holland," by Jacques Maris, "The Flock," by Mauve, and "A Frugal Meal," by Israels, from the Dutch school; and "Interior of a Brewery," by Zorn, from Sweden. About all that needs to be noted concerning these works is that "A Country Festival" is one of Knaus's best pictures, that "Shepherd and Flock—Dedham Church in the Distance" is a small but very good Constable, that the Israels shows that this painter is or has been capable of painting a good picture sometimes, and that "A Sewing Bee in Holland" is one of Uhde's most pleasing and excellent canvases. "You Are Welcome" is a picture by Van Beers that should not have been included in the collection, and a large picture by Harry Thompson, an English artist who has long lived in France and has no affiliation with the British school, "The Shepherdess," scarcely deserves the considerable space it occupies. There are two great masterpieces in the collection: Millet's "Peasant Leaning on His Hoe," and Manet's "Dead Toreador." Corot's "Orpheus" is one of his most celebrated works, but it is not one of his very best, like the "Biblis," which was recently brought to the United States but could not, unfortunately, be secured for this exhibition; and, with the "Orpheus" and eleven other works, none of them very good, except a small landscape (No. 2889), there is quantity rather than quality in the group that represents him. In the case of Millet almost no other picture than the "Peasant Leaning on his Hoe," save "The Gleaners," which is now in the Louvre, would serve so well to show what a great artist he was; and "The Pig Killers," the "Shepherdess," and five other pictures here are all worthy. Manet's "Dead Toreador" is unique. It is unlike anything else he ever painted—better, possibly, than any other picture, unless "The Boy with the Sword," in the Metropolitan Museum, the "Olympe," in the Luxembourg, or "The Little Fifer" may be compared to it, and none of these possesses such distinction of color, such depth of tone and nobility of aspect as the "Toreador." "The Cooper's Shop" is a fine Daubigny, and "The Banks of the Oise" a small landscape that was one of the best of his works in the Barye Exhibition in New York in 1889, is here. There are several landscapes by Monet that are fairly good if not of his best, and good examples of Troyon, Jules Breton, Cazin, Degas, Renoir, and Puvis de Chavannes. Two small pictures by Dagnan-Bouveret, and "Revery" and "The Thames," by Bastien-Lepage, though unimportant, are of excellent quality. Rousseau, Decamps, Diaz, Delacroix, and Fromentin are indifferently represented, and the single Courbet in the collection, "Dogs and Hare," is an inferior work. But, in spite of its shortcomings, the Loan Collection makes an interesting exhibition, and credit is due to those who organized it. It is no easy matter to borrow valuable pictures for world's fairs.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

DEMOCRACY IN MINIATURE.

SWITZERLAND, July, 1893.

THOSE who visit Switzerland not merely for health and change of scene, but to study its political and social systems, will find in the smaller and more primitive cantons an interesting field for their inquiries. Most writers on Switzerland treat of it as one country, subject to the same laws throughout, with the same political and social organization and customs. Travellers thoroughly familiar with the general features of the country overlook the fact that the Swiss Confederacy is an agglomeration of sovereign democratic republics, consisting of nineteen entire and six half-cantons, whose individual independence and sovereignty have been curtailed only to the extent of such sovereign rights and exclusive competence as they have themselves transferred to the hands of the Confederation "to insure the independence of the country, and to increase the common prosperity."

The Canton of Glarus in northeast Switzerland, with an area of less than 200,000 acres and a population of 34,000 souls, is one of the best organized of the smaller Swiss States. In it pedestrians and mountaineers will find, within a small district, as many beautiful walks and difficult ascents as can be found in any similar area in Switzerland. Although none of the mountain peaks exceeds 12,000 feet in height, the greater part of the country is extremely rugged, the valleys are walled with precipitous cliffs, and a large part of the Canton consists of high pastures, rocks, snow, and glaciers. The lowland consists of two narrow valleys in the form of the letter Y, whose streams deliver themselves into the Wallensee and thence into the Lake of Zurich; the mountains overhanging these valleys both appear to be and are in a state of unstable equilibrium. The word "landslip" hardly conveys an idea of the catastrophes that have occurred over and over again: the mountains themselves have fallen down, and so recently as 1881 114 persons were killed by the fall of a mountain mass overhanging the village of Ehn. The beds of the two main valleys are filled with a string of busy villages, the chief buildings in which are cotton-spinning, weaving, and printing-factories, in which about 8,500 persons find employment. The factory hands, as in other parts of Switzerland, are usually small freeholders enjoying a right to fuel and pasture on the communal lands, and this mixture of agricultural and industrial pursuits tends not only to material prosperity, but to personal independence and intelligence.

The supreme legislative authority is the Landesgemeinde, or entire body of electors. Every male citizen over eighteen years enjoys the franchise, and may propose laws or decrees at the meetings of the Landesgemeinde, which are held in the open air at the town of Glarus. The total number of electors is 8,200, a somewhat cumbrous parliament if all members attended. Though any elector may bring forward proposals for laws, and discuss bills submitted for approval, in practice laws and decrees are usually prepared by the Cantonal Council of 117 members, representing the different communes or villages. An Executive Council of nine attends to the current business of government. All officials hold office for three years only. They are appointed and may be reëlected by the Landesgemeinde, by whom nearly all appointments are made, or must be confirmed. There are five courts of justice—(1) the Supreme Court of Appeal; (2) a civil-bill court; (3) a court dealing with local affairs, boundaries of property, etc., which often holds its sittings in the open air on the spot involved in the cause; (4) a matrimonial court; (5) a criminal court.

Taxation, levied on the capital value of real and personal property, is graduated, a certain amount being exempted, and the percentage of the tax increasing with the value of the estate. Household furniture and trade implements to the value of $600 are exempt from taxation. Estates under $5,000 value are taxed on only 60 per cent. of the value. Estates between $20,000 and $800,000 value are divided into twenty classes, on which the percentage of tax increases from 4 up to 10 per cent.; the same principle is applied to legacy and succession duties. The taxed value of real estate in the Canton is about $26,000,000; the ordinary revenue amounts to $170,000, or about $5 per head of population, and half of this is derived from taxation of real estate. According to the latest returns about $75,000 a year is spent on education, chiefly on primary schools, in which there were, in 1892, 5,690 scholars under 88 teachers. The cost of each pupil in the primary schools was $10.5, and the expense to taxpayers $1.5 per inhabitant. Almost everything in Switzerland seems to be insured against calamity and loss, but the amount paid per head for insurance in Glarus, $2.5, is considerably in excess of the average for all Switzerland. Fire insurance is compulsory, and is really a tax levied by the Canton on all buildings and goods liable to destruction by fire. In addition there are arrangements and ample facilities for insurance of life both of men and cattle, against storm, hail, accidents, cattle plague, and loss of goods in carriage.

Four-fifths of the Glarnerfolk are Protestants, the remaining fifth is Catholic, but religious toleration exists to the fullest extent. This has been the practice and tradition of the Canton since 1550, when, after years of bitter animosities and quarrels, the influence of Valentin Tschudi, one of the leading ecclesiastics, prevailed to secure peace and toleration. History relates that during the latter part of his life he ministered to both sects, serving mass to the Catholics and preaching to the Protestants. History is confirmed by the existence to-day of the handsome and spacious church at Glarus, founded by him, though since rebuilt, which is used by both Catholics and Protestants. The altar, the lights, the crucifix, the pictures of Virgin and Saints give this "Simultankirche" the appearance of a Catholic church, yet the majority of those who use it are Protestants. As a non-Catholic, used to the intolerant and narrow-minded bigotry of my fellow-countrymen in England and Ireland, I felt more surprised that Protestants should conduct their services in the presence of Catholic emblems than that Catholics should use a building partly appropriated to Protestant worship. Up to last year, Irish national schools in purely Catholic districts were deprived of the grants given to all other schools if teachers belonging to the Catholic religious orders kept any of their religious emblems displayed on the walls.

The cantonal boundary between Glarus and the adjoining Canton of Uri is a hurdle fence in the middle of a wide mountain valley, and

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a touching story is told as to how it came to be fixed there instead of at some natural boundary. There had been many disputes as to the occupation of this valley, which lies on the Glarus side of the range; to end the controversy it was agreed that at cockcrow one man should start from Altdorf in Uri and another from Glarus, and that where the runners met the boundary should be fixed. The Glarus cock was overfed, and crowed late, so the runner from Altdorf got a long start (the distance is about 20 miles over a range 8,000 feet high). He had passed the valley in dispute and had arrived at the last steep descent when he met the rival runner. The Glarus man, overwhelmed with shame at his Canton's loss, begged the other to give him back as much ground as he could cover carrying him on his shoulders; the Altdorfer, having won far more ground than he expected, agreed. The Glarus man, with his rival on his back, climbed the steep ascent, traversed half the valley, and then fell dead where the fence now stands, having won a barren pasture for his Canton at the cost of his life.

When the French in 1798 occupied Switzerland, the Cantons of Glarus, Uri, and Schwyz, with a population of less than 100,000, attempted to maintain their independence and refused to join the Helvetic Confederation. Their resistance was quickly overcome, but not until they had put every man in Glarus between fifteen and fifty-five under arms, and their army had been defeated at Wollerau. It seems almost impossible that this remote and rugged country should have been the battlefield of great armies, but in the following year the Russian General Suvaroff marched through the Canton with an army of 25,000 men, closely pursued by the French. He escaped into the Rhine Valley over the difficult Panixer Pass, but lost a large part of his army from exposure and hardship on the mountains. After the brief subjection of Switzerland to French influence, Glarus regained its position as a sovereign State. The Glarus cock now crows earlier than that of Uri, and in all that constitutes modern civilization it is far ahead of the adjoining forest Cantons. M. O. B.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL STRUGGLE IN NORWAY.

CHRISTIANIA, August 1, 1893.

NORWAY as a modern State dates only from 1814. As a province of Denmark she had lost her individuality and played no rôle in European politics. Her summary cession to Sweden by the Treaty of Kiel (January 4, 1814), however, fanned into life again the merely dormant spirit of nationality, and the resolve that was then taken by the Norwegians not to acknowledge the Treaty of Kiel and the transfer of the Norwegian crown, but to consider themselves by its surrender by the Danish King rehabilitated in their original right as a nation, was self-reliant and determined. The succeeding historical events of 1814 are well known. A national convention met at Eidsvold that same year, framed a Constitution, and elected Prince Christian Frederik, the Danish Viceroy of Norway, King. Sweden, on her part, however, did not propose so easily to relinquish her claims, and Bernadotte, the Swedish Crown Prince, speedily asserted them by force of arms. The result was that Christian abdicated his Crown to the Storthing, which had been assembled, by agreement with Sweden, under the so-called Treaty of Moss (August 14), when Bernadotte, as the King's representative, promised that "Norway should retain the Eidsvold Constitution in everything that did not conflict with the union with Sweden," and that "Norway herself should participate with her free consent in negotiations with Sweden concerning the further conditions of the Union." The Storthing, thereupon, after a prolonged conference with the Swedish Commissioners, agreed to a somewhat modified form of the Eidsvold Constitution, and on the 4th of November elected Charles XIII. of Sweden King of Norway.

The Constitution is a compact between the Storthing and the King, as is expressly affirmed at the end of the instrument itself. The conditions of the union are as follows: According to the first article, "The kingdom of Norway shall be a free, independent, indivisible, and inalienable State, united with Sweden under one king." Each kingdom, however, has its own laws. The supplementary Act of Union (*Rigs Akt*) of 1815 uses the phrase, "Under one king, but with different administrative laws." In the Government of Norway, accordingly, the executive authority belongs to the King. It is his right, furthermore, "to declare war and conclude peace, to enter into and dissolve treaties, to despatch and receive ambassadors." He has the appointment, besides, of all officials, civil, ecclesiastical, and military, but in such appointments must take the opinion of his Norwegian Council. The responsibility of the King rests with a Council, appointed by him, composed of two Ministers of State and at least seven other members. One Cabinet Minister and two Privy Councillors are with the King in Sweden, the others, the actual Norwegian Government, are in Christiania. Affairs of State concerning Norway must be submitted in Sweden to a joint Cabinet, made up of the Swedish Council and the members of the Norwegian Council appointed to be with the King. The legislative authority is the prerogative of the Storthing, composed of the elected representatives of the people. To the Storthing belongs the right, according to the Constitution, of legislation and taxation, contracting loans, controlling the finances, making appropriations, fixing the civil list and appanage of the King, inspecting State papers as well as conventions and treaties with foreign Powers, and revising the pension list and the budget.

It will be readily seen from the foregoing that the union with Sweden is a personal union. Sweden and Norway, to be sure, are united under one king, but each has its own government independent of the other; and the mutual attitude of the two States, so far at least as internal affairs are concerned, is that of two coördinated nations with complete freedom of action, each governed by its own laws and controlled by its own interests. There are, nevertheless, under the Union certain joint conditions that are not to be lost sight of. As at present constituted, the actual details are as follows: Both kingdoms have a common Minister for Foreign Affairs who is a Swede, amenable only to the Swedish States Council (Rigsdag). There are besides a common diplomatic and consular service, the diplomatic amenable only to Sweden. Norway, at the present time, pays toward the support of this service five-seventeenths of the whole. The consuls (since 1836) are created in the joint Cabinet, consisting of the Swedish Cabinet and the Norwegian members with the King in Stockholm, as already described. Toward the support of this service Norway contributes three-sevenths of the whole. As an offset to the joint Cabinet in Sweden, be it mentioned, if a joint Cabinet is held in Christiania, its personnel is the whole Norwegian Cabinet with three members of the Swedish Cabinet. Peace and war, furthermore, are in common. The King is commander-in-chief of the army and navy, but he is at well-nigh all points amenable to the Storthing. An attack upon either kingdom is to be regarded as an attack upon both. For common purposes of defence outside of Norway but a little over 15,000 men—troops, according to the terms of the Constitution, belonging to the "line"—are available; in point of fact the number would be much less. The Norwegian war marine is at the disposal of the common service. Lastly, the two kingdoms have a common State religion, the Lutheran, of which the King is the head.

That an equality of the two kingdoms was intended at the outset is apparent from the utterance of the King, Charles XIII., before the Swedish States Council in the discussion pending the promulgation of the Act of Union, where he says that it is the intention to establish between them "a complete equality as regards the nation's common rights," and is unmistakably acknowledged by the act itself. But Sweden has never been willing to concede perfect equality to Norway within the Union, either in theory or in practice, and in all but a few cases has persistently maintained existing conditions until fairly forced to relinquish them. Down to 1886, when an available record ends, there had been from the beginning no less than 279 resolutions before the Storthing, some of them, of course, emanating from the King, to amend the Constitution; only fourteen, however, of the number were carried through.

One struggle arose early in the history of the Union and has been bitterly fought, respecting the King's right of veto. According to the Constitution, the King has a suspensive veto, only, upon projects of law; if a bill is passed unchanged by three successive Storthings, it becomes law without the royal sanction. The old orders of nobility were abolished in this way by the Storthing in 1821. The matter of a change of suspensive veto into absolute veto was made a direct issue first in 1824, when it was rejected by the Storthing, and again in 1836, when it was laid upon the table without action. In regard to changes of the Constitution, in which matter there is no express provision, the King has claimed an absolute veto. This the Storthing has strenuously denied. The question has come up several times—first, between 1824 and 1833, in connection with the proposed abolition of the Governor-General's office, and again, from 1872 to 1884, in the bitter fight that was waged between the King and the Storthing in regard to the attendance of members of the Cabinet upon its proceedings. The matter, however, has never been decided, although the Storthing, in the last phase of the subject, still asserted its right to change the Constitution without the sanction of the Crown.

A second constitutional struggle grew out of the attempt on the part of the Storthing to abolish the office of Governor-General, who, according to provision, could be either a Norwegian or a Swede. The matter came up as early as 1818. After 1829 no Swede held the office. In 1859, the Storthing voted to abolish the office, but the King vetoed the measure and obstinately held to his point. The resolution was again adopted by the Storthing in 1873, the year after the accession of the present King, and was finally sanctioned.

Of all the contests between King and Legislature, perhaps the most acrimonious, certainly the most persistent, was that in regard to the compulsory participation of the members of

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the Cabinet in the proceedings of the Storthing. The Constitution had not expressly determined the matter, but had evidently not intended it. The new resolution simply cleared the way for making the Ministry controllable by the Legislature, and was by far the most radical change in the Constitution that had yet been attempted on the part of the Norwegians. The proposition was adopted by the Storthings of 1872, 1874, and 1877, but was successively vetoed by the King. In 1880 it was again adopted. The matter, in the meantime, had evoked the most bitter hostility between the Radicals and the Conservatives in the Storthing, and by extension throughout the country, which seemed on the brink of civil war. The feeling against the Crown rose so high that threats were openly made by the Radical party of absolute separation from Sweden. At the new election, in 1882, the Radicals obtained a large majority, and upon the assemblage of the Storthing, the following year, the prosecution was ordered of the Conservative Cabinet, which had insisted, against the Radicals, that the resolution, not having obtained the royal sanction, was not law. In the trial before the Rigsret which followed, Selmer, the Minister, with seven other members of the Cabinet, were adjudged to have forfeited their eligibility and were accordingly expelled from office; three others were dismissed with a fine. The matter was not settled until the succeeding year, when a compromise was finally agreed upon, adopted by the Storthing and sanctioned by the King, who had ultimately conceded almost every point.

The latest phase of this never-ending conflict is in regard to the joint relation of Sweden and Norway in international affairs, and again threats are heard of separation, and excitement throughout the country has run almost as high as during the period just described. This time, too, a definite constitutional provision, so far, at least, as the Minister for Foreign Affairs and the diplomatic service are concerned, has been openly attacked, but not, as before, with a covert intention. In foreign affairs the first question that came up for adjustment was in relation to the flag. The matter was called up as early as 1831. In 1836 the complaint was made by the ever-watchful Storthing that Norwegian vessels were obliged to hoist the Swedish ensign in foreign ports, where such vessels were also entered as Swedish. The matter was finally disposed of in 1838, when it was decided that Norway should use her own merchant flag everywhere. A Norwegian "Union flag" in the national colors, but with the Union mark in the right upper corner, was made the war flag in 1844. The radicals at the present time are, however, dissatisfied with this disposition of the matter, and in the Storthing just ended the removal of the Union sign was made the subject of action. Connected with the matter of the flag was the stipulated discontinuance of the use in combination, on Swedish coins and seals, of the Norwegian escutcheon, and the decision that in all documents specifically Norwegian, Norway should precede Sweden in titular phrases. The jealous use on the coinage and elsewhere on the part of Norway of "Norwegian and Swedish," as opposed to the forced punctiliousness in Sweden alone of "Swedish and Norwegian," has its amusing side. Oscar II., in this way, is in Norwegian phraseology "King of Norway and Sweden," in Swedish "King of Sweden and Norway."

The question of the flag in its main features was easily disposed of, but the common consular and diplomatic service with the single (Swedish) Minister for Foreign Affairs remains still the great thorn in the side of Norway. In regard to the diplomatic service several courses have been proposed: the conservative and logical one of allowing the eligibility of a Norwegian as well as a Swede to the Ministry and of constituting a council of three Norwegian and three Swedish members which shall have jurisdiction in affairs concerning both kingdoms, or the extremist one of cutting loose from Sweden in diplomatic affairs altogether, and making two ministers and two diplomatic corps. The consular service as at present constituted dates from 1858. According to its provisions, cases concerning both kingdoms fall under the jurisdiction of the Minister for Foreign Affairs. Norway, accordingly, though she pays for the support of the service, as has already been stated, a due proportion, has no control over its conduct, although the consuls-general, the consuls, and the salaried vice-consuls are appointed in the joint council. It is, perhaps, no wonder that Norway, with the third largest merchant marine in the world (three times larger than that of Sweden), should be restive under an arraugement which does not give her the equality in the Confederation to which she is by fact entitled. What she might demand, and what would be conceded, under certain circumstances, by Sweden, is a more carefully coordinated system, in whose administration she should have due representation. I cannot find, in looking over the diplomatic history of the Union, with the exception of a single possible case, that there is anything to be found fault with in the management of foreign affairs, or that any such fault has been found. One great objection, I suspect, in the whole present arrangement is that red rag to the Norwegian radical, the use in diplomatic correspondence of "the Kingdoms of Sweden and Norway," and the presence even in the Norwegian State-Calendar of "Swedish and Norwegian" applied to diplomats and consuls. Be this as it may, the Storthing just ended, which witnessed on the 22d of April, on this very question, the resignation of the Steen Radical ministry, and the rehabilitation on the 2d of May of a Conservative ministry under Stang, after cutting down the appanage of the King and Crown Prince to show its good will, has "cast the die," as a Swedish journal puts it, and decided by a bare majority of 56 to 55 that the common consular service shall cease on the 1st of January, 1895. This vote does not, of course, represent the whole Liberal strength in the Storthing. Of the total number of 114 members, three were absent; six members of the Left voted with the Right.

In the country at large, the actual voters of the two political parties (the few "moderates" being reckoned in with the Right), were at the last election, in 1891, very evenly divided. The country districts, with a total population of one and a half millions of people, polled at that time for the electors of their quota of 76 members of the Storthing as follows: Right 35,800, Left 40,300 votes. The town districts, with a population of but half a million, polled for their 38 members: Right 14,282, Left 11,504. The total is, accordingly, for the Right 50,082, for the Left 51,804 actual voters. It will be seen from the foregoing, furthermore, that the country has not only a preponderance of members, two to one, over the towns, but that it is Liberal and the towns Conservative—in other words, that the peasant vote is at the present time dominant in Norwegian politics. The country in Norway is the great source of radicalism and of separation as well. The towns, with their wider commercial interests and broader political education, see more clearly the advantages of the Union and the dangers that would arise from its dissolution.

There is but little immediate danger of such a violent outcome. Norway, with a standing army of perhaps a thousand men and a militia incapable of speedy mobilization, without a single first-class man-of-war or a single modern fortification, is not going to rush blindly into a conflict that could have for her but one ultimate result, the loss of her autonomy altogether. There is no strong party in the State that desires a dissolution of the Union, and no strong voice that advocates it. Björnson, who, pending the election of 1882, in his speech at Stiklestad, openly advised disruption, has avowedly taken a far more moderate position, and, from his present place of residence in Denmark, watches the conflict without any active participation in it whatsoever. Ullmann, once schoolmaster and now president of the Storthing (ex-pedagogue and present demagogue), whose voice at least is loudest, has, since the end of the session on the 22d of last month, gone off to America—it is said, to make propaganda among the Norsemen in the West for the further prosecution of the Radical programme. In the meantime, Norway's interests are still where they are safest, under the Union where she has had eighty years of peaceful development. That the country has been prosperous under the Confederation no one can deny. Her shipping interests have increased almost beyond precedent, industrial conditions have improved, the educational system has been vastly extended, and the burdens of State, thanks to a most careful administration, are incredibly small. That this is entirely the result of the Union is not alleged, but in good part it unquestionably is. By virtue of this very progress and increased importance, Norway should, undoubtedly, in many respects occupy a more equal place with Sweden within the Union than is now accorded her. The logical direction of Norwegian politics is neither towards subordination, which nobody in Norway suggests, nor towards separation, which is proposed only by a hot-headed few. For protection and defence, if nothing more, there must be, as there is, a Scandinavian Union, a single State in which, without the loss of self-respect, each member can still maintain, if it chooses, its own national identity and live its own individual life. W. H. C.

Correspondence.

WOMEN GRADUATES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of last week, just received here, you mention as an interesting educational "straw" the large number of women who received fellowships at the close of the first year of Chicago University, and named over the colleges and universities of which these women were graduates. By some oversight, the mention of the University of California as the Alma Mater of two of these fellows was omitted, though one of them was mentioned as a Ph.M. of Chicago University. Miss Alice Pratt, who takes a special travelling fellowship in literature and a Ph.M. degree this year from Chicago University, and Miss Sarah Hardy, who is about to enter Chicago University with a fellowship in the department of history and economics, both re-

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ceived the Ph.B. degree from California, with exceptionally high rank.

This correction, of course, increases still further the high proportion of women from coeducational institutions among the winners, to which you call attention.

Yours sincerely, J. B. REINSTEIN,
President Alumni Association U. C.

SAN FRANCISCO, August 17, 1893.

HARVARDIANA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a notice of Dr. Hale's 'A New England Boyhood' in a late *Nation* I notice one or two slight inaccuracies which I venture to point out.

The classmate of Mr. Hale was the grandson, not the son, of the founder of the house in Bowdoin Square, an Englishman from Derby. It was converted, somewhere in the forties, into the Revere House by the addition of two stories and by building over the garden on one side and the stables on the other. Your historian has skipped a generation, Kirk Boott second deserving a place in his annals, having been one of the founders of Lowell, in association with John Lowell and Patrick T. Jackson. His father obtained for him a commission in Wellington's army, and he served in the Peninsula until the breaking out of the war of 1812, when he returned to Boston. The town of Lowell was set off from Chelmsford about 1822.

The comparison between Prof. Webster's lectures and Emerson's, and the popularity assumed for the former, have a humorous sound to the survivors of those days. Webster's lectures on chemistry were thought of so little importance that few students took them seriously. Emerson was not connected with the college as a lecturer, but read his essays in Boston, where some of the students went to hear him; but few crossed Cambridge bridge for this purpose with the enthusiasm that J. R. Lowell felt, according to his reminiscences. The most popular lectures of the time at Harvard were those of Prof. Farrar on Natural Philosophy.

While on Harvard topics I may be allowed to ask the author of an interesting article in the last *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, called "Undergraduate Life Sixty Years Ago," if there is not an omission in his account of the exercises at President Quincy's inauguration in 1829. He makes no mention of an English oration by Mr. William Newell, afterwards pastor for some years of the First Church in Cambridge. I was present, and remember not only the fact, but also a passage which produced a certain effect on the audience and has clung to my memory ever since. Turning to the new President, the orator apostrophized him in the words of *Hamlet*: "Be thou pure as snow, thou shalt not escape calumny." This was with reference to Mr. Quincy's predecessor, the "well-beloved Kirkland," who, it was thought, had been unfairly treated. I am open to correction, or, rather, I should be. But, as old men are more apt to forget than to remember, I can't help thinking my positive evidence better than any amount of negative testimony.

One thing more. Is not the editor of a Harvard magazine hurting the reputation of the University by allowing such divisions of words into syllables as *physiol-ogy*, *sys-tem*, *promising*, *pres-ent*, *reg-ister*, *rep-resent*?

H. U., '31.

[Usage in the division of words is, we think, far too unsettled and confused to warrant any censure of the University for the system adopted in the *Magazine*, even were that an official publication and printed at a University press.—ED. NATION.]

THE MOST PICTURESQUE PLACE IN THE WORLD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly allow us space to express the pleasure and regret caused us by the letters, published in the *Nation* and elsewhere, referring to our article in the July *Century*?—pleasure, because we are generous enough to be glad that, after all, "The Most Picturesque Place in the World" is known to a few besides ourselves; regret, that the American, despite his reputation for humor, must take even us in our lightest moments so seriously, and that, in his eagerness to rush into print, he does not weigh his words more carefully. Our "Most Picturesque Place" may be Le Puy, but Le Puy is not in the Auvergne, while, for the fame of that town of many charms, it would be better could "its colossal bronze statue of the Virgin" be forgotten.—We are, yours truly,

J. and E. R. PENNELL.

LAON, August 18, 1893.

"SLANG."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For *slang*, substantive or attributive, in all the shades of sense, one excepted, which have attached to it, the subjoined quotations will, with reference to my immediate purpose, be deemed sufficient:

"Foote. Have you not seen the bills?
"Harry Scamper. What, about the lectures? Ay; but that's all *slang*, I suppose. No, no." Foote, *The Orators* (1762), Act I.

"The personages have, mostly, the manners and language of elegant middle life, removed alike from the rant of tragedy or the *slang* of farce." William Taylor, of Norwich, in the *Monthly Review*, vol. xx., p. 543 (1796).

"'To cut an acquaintance' is not quite unexceptionable; because it is not perfectly common or intelligible, and has hardly yet escaped out of the limits of *slang* phraseology." William Hazlitt, *Table-talk*, *On Familiar Style* (1822).

"I met, not long since, with a speech by a leading member of the Scotch General Assembly, declaring his 'conviction that the truths of Christianity could not be received by men in so rude a state as the East Indians, and that it was necessary to give them first a relish for the habits and comforts of civilized life, before they could embrace the truths of the Gospel.' The same *slang* (for it is nothing more) I have seen repeated in divers pamphlets, and even heard it in conversations at Calcutta." Bishop Heber, *Letter* (March, 1824), in *Narrative of a Journey*, etc. (ed. 1828), vol. iii., p. 350.

These quotations are from among those I have got together; and the kindness of Dr. Murray enables me to speak of others, all of them dating earlier than 1840, in which, precisely as at present, *slang* is used by Miss Maria Edgeworth (1813), Dr. Henry Mackenzie (1822), Miss Mary R. Mitford (1824), Sir Robert Peel (1828), and Henry Hallam (1838–39).

Grose, in his *Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue*, which appeared in 1785, knows the substantive *slang* only as signifying "a fetter." Under the verb *slang* he has: "To defraud a person of any part of his due is called *slanging* him; also, to cheat by false weights or measures, or other unfair means."

In a work, often cited, bearing the date of 1758, where, so far as has been pointed out, we first meet with *slang*, namely, in "the Slang patter," the expression denotes the special dialect of thieves. But no evidence has been produced that it was ever so restricted in popular acceptation. As the thief has his *slang*, so the turfite, the bruiser, the costermonger, the college-don, and even the Archbishop of Canterbury, may have his. Broadly, diction by which one is disagreeably reminded of a particular occupation, class, or sect, is *slang*. Being dictated, if not by a desire of mystification, by vulgarity of taste or by a contracted cast of mind, *slang* is one with both the *flash* and, for the most part, the multivocal *cant* of former days.

Very misleading, therefore, is the annexed definition, that of the Rev. Dr. Henry Christmas, given in his supplement to a well-known work by Samuel Pegge:

"*Slang* is a language of itself; it consists of bad English, as a basis, mixed with Romanee or gipsy words, and others of arbitrary invention; it is not figurative, save in very few instances, and conveys no ideas at all to the mind of him who has not a thieves' lexicon to refer to. . . . *Slang*, in a word, is a dialect used by persons engaged in criminal pursuits; and its object is concealment." *Anecdotes of the English Language* (ed. 1844), p. 292.

Prof. Brander Matthews, in the latest number of *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*, writes as follows:

"*Slang* was, at first, the *cant* of thieves; and this seems to have been its only meaning until well into the present century. In *Redgauntlet*, for example, published in 1824, Scott speaks of 'the thieves' Latin called *slang*.' Some time during the middle of the century, *slang* lost this narrow limitation, and came to signify a word or a phrase used with a meaning not recognized in polite letters, either because it had just been invented or because it had passed out of memory."

Little of this challenges acceptance. Literature should have instructed Sir Walter Scott that there was many another *slang* than "thieves' Latin." Was Washington Irving, in 1807 or 1808, thinking of the jargon of thieves when he ventured *slangwhanger*, whence the *slangwhangery* of writers in the *Saturday Review* and elsewhere? As to what is asserted to have taken place at that curiously chronological period, "some time *during* the middle of the century," it has been refuted above. For the rest, when and where has the epithet *slang* been applied either to a neoterism or to an archaism, simply as such?

"The amateur philologist" Prof. Matthews refers to as a sort of sciolist not in esteem with him. He might have added that dry facts elicted by plodding research are greatly preferable, as ground for speculation, to the conjectures and intuitions, whether masked or explicit, of linguistic autocracy. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, July 30, 1893.

P. S. The verb *predicate*, lately shown to have been misused by Mr. Lowell, is matched, I find, by his misuse, in 1861, of *predicable*:

"The non-slaveholding States . . . pay far more than the proportion, *predicable* on mere preponderence in numbers, of the expenses of a government supported mainly by a tariff on importations." *Political Essays* (1888), p. 60.

Regarding *predicate*, for *predict*, I also inquired: "Has it yet crossed the Atlantic?" The question can now be answered:

"The presence of qualities from which success could then have been *predicated*." Mr. John Bigelow, *William Cullen Bryant* (1890), p. 71.

DEFECTS OF PATENT BALLOT-BOXES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Australian ballot system is so far sustained in theory; but with experience in

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the few States where patent ballot boxes have been used, there have come into prominence certain defects which relate only to the practical working of the theory. The liability to get out of working order which has beset the boxes in question has been due in a measure to a departure from the mechanical principle of simplicity. The registering apparatus has, in some cases, failed to count accurately because of needless complexity. Too many parts, that is, have been introduced where fewer were practicable. In these boxes, too, the liability to the gumming of oil, the corrosion of metal, the warping, shrinking, or swelling of wood, have had their play in those disturbances of the register which have perplexed and provoked the counting officials, sometimes to the excess of downright condemnation of boxes and system together.

The box, as known thus far, is a piece of machinery too delicate for handling under the conditions of city or town management. It is in hands that do not understand mechanism. When not in use, it is, until needed again, laid away in some room or closet, and when called for is brought out by the janitor, and, without adequate examination, is set up and expected to go. Meanwhile, however, the gumming, corrosion, warping, shrinking, and swelling have had play, and it will not go. Breakage, too, has been the frequent consequence of the rough handling. Against these accidents ingenuity should be exercised in the devising of a box that may be thrown up on any heap of rubbish about the hall and yet be ready for use next time. If no American mechanic can devise such a machine for the retention of the Australian system, it is suggested that darkest Africa might furnish an inventor.

Another provoking difficulty at the polls is the premature filling of the box with ballots. A filled-up box after the casting of only 300 ballots at a polling precinct where 1,000 votes are to be cast, is something too much for the serenity of the officials. The law provides for the opening of the box and the removing of the ballots, during the voting, in large towns, but there is no such provision made for the voting precincts of the cities. In the cities, then, the provocation is great, while in towns the frequent opening of the box to crowd down the ballots is undesired by the honest official, and affords his opportunity to tamper to the dishonest one. One cause may be that the box is not large enough; but, too, it may be large enough to hold 1,000 ballots and yet be filled with 300. The fault lies with the rollers that are used in all the known boxes for drawing in the ballot. The rollers seize the ballot by its end and deposit the ballot without laying it flat. The layers, instead of being uniform, lie in the box in all irregular ways. An improvement on this method ought to be within reach.

These imperfections in the boxes have suggested a resort to devices for voting without ballots, but so far the latter have been of a kind against which no strictures can be too severe; for by them the voter, however well instructed, cannot have the testimony of his eyesight, or other sense, to inform him beyond question that he has voted. Among these voting-machines are included devices with push-buttons to operate a concealed register, and also machines by which the voter marks with a lead pencil or other instrument, through a slot or a series of slots. After all that can be said in favor of these machines, returned and spoiled ballots show the one insurmountable objection remaining, that if a voter makes a mistake, he cannot set it right; he is deprived of his franchise.

No device can probably take the place of a ballot-box, acting perfectly, and a stamp in the hand of the voter to take the place of the lead pencil. The latter is objectionable because the counting official uses one also. If he is disposed to be fraudulent, he can, with the pencil, tamper with the vote, whereas the stamp could be put in the voter's hand and be forbidden to the counter. W. W. TUFTS.

ARLINGTON, MASS., August 15, 1893.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO., for whom 1893 is a jubilee year, as their first imprints bear date 1843, and who are about to remove their establishment in this city from Fourth to Fifth Avenue, show a long list of works by American authors among their forthcoming autumn publications. We cite 'A Theory of Development and Heredity,' by Prof. Henry B. Orr of Tulane University; 'The Distribution of Wealth,' by Prof. John R. Commons of the University of Indiana; 'Genetic Philosophy,' by David J. Hill, President of the University of Rochester; 'Notes on Electromagnets and the Construction of Dynamos,' by Prof. Dugald C. Jackson of the University of Wisconsin; a 'History of Mathematics,' by Prof. Florian Cajori of Colorado College; 'The Resistance of Ships and Screw Propulsion,' by D. W. Taylor of the United State Navy-yard at Mare Island; a novel, 'Marion Darche,' by F. Marion Crawford; an illustrated edition of William Winter's 'Shakspere's England'; and 'Bay Leaves,' a collection, by Prof. Goldwin Smith, of translations from the Latin poets.

Henry Holt & Co. announce for early publication a 'Brief German Reader,' by Prof. W. D. Whitney; 'German Literature in its Chief Epochs,' by Prof. Kuno Francke; 'Deutsche Gedichte,' a collection of the very best German ballads and lyrics, edited by Dr. Camillo von Klenze of the University of Chicago; 'Histoire de la Littérature Française, by Prof. Alcée Fortier; 'Seventeenth Century French Letters,' edited by Prof. Edward L. Walter of the University of Michigan; 'Episodes from Victor Hugo's Novels,' with some of his shorter poems, edited by Prof. F. M. Warren of Adelbert College; 'Prose Extracts from Coleridge,' edited by Prof. H. A. Beers of Yale; 'Specimens of Argumentation,' classical and modern, edited in two volumes by George P. Baker; and 'First Courses in Science,' by Prof. John F. Woodhull.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s fall announcements embrace 'Massachusetts: Its Historians and its History,' by Charles Francis Adams; 'The Life and Writings of Jared Sparks,' with selections from his journals and correspondence, by Prof. Herbert B. Adams, a limited edition in two volumes; 'The Bench and the Bar of New Hampshire,' by ex-Gov. Charles H. Bell; 'The Old Colony Town, and Other Sketches,' by William Root Bliss; 'An Old Town by the Sea,' by Thomas Bailey Aldrich; 'Letters of Asa Gray,' edited by Jane Loring Gray, with portraits; 'The Poems of Thomas William Parsons,' and his metrical translation of 'The Divine Comedy of Dante,' which will be accompanied by a memorial sketch by Miss Louise Imogen Guiney, and an introduction by Prof. Norton; 'A Poet's Portfolio; Later Readings,' by W. W. Story; 'In Sunshine Land,' poems for young folks, by Edith M. Thomas; 'Sam Houston and the War of Independence in Texas,' by Alfred M. Williams; 'The Natural History of Intellect, and Other Papers,' by Ralph Waldo Emerson, some never included in any collection of his writings and some inedited, together with an index to all his works (in the Riverside and the large-paper editions); a new Riverside edition in ten volumes of the Works of Henry D. Thoreau; holiday editions of Holmes's 'Autocrat,' Longfellow's 'Hanging of the Crane,' Mrs. Deland's 'Old Garden,' and Miss Jewett's 'Deephaven'; 'Familiar Letters of Sir Walter Scott,' edited in two volumes by David Douglas; 'Greek Lines, and Other Architectural Essays,' by Henry Van Brunt; 'The Growth and Influence of Classical Greek Poetry,' by Prof. Jebb; 'Essays in Idleness,' by Agnes Repplier; 'Sub-Cœlum: A Sky-Built Human World,' by A. P. Russell; 'Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan,' by Lafcadio Hearn; 'A Japanese Interior,' by Miss Alice M. Bacon; 'The Amateur Photographer,' by Alexander Black; 'The Witness to Immortality, in Literature, Philosophy, and Life,' by the Rev. Geo. A. Gordon; 'A Sketch of the History of the Apostolic Church,' by Prof. Oliver J. Thatcher of the University of Chicago; 'His Vanished Star,' by Charles Egbert Craddock; and 'Rachel Stanwood: A Story of the Middle of the Nineteenth Century,' by Mrs. Lucy Gibbons Morse.

Dr. William Wright's 'The Brontë Family' will be published, with illustrations, by D. Appleton & Co.

The editor of 'Nuttall's Standard Dictionary' has compiled a 'Dictionary of Quotations from Ancient and Modern English and French Sources,' with a topical index, which Frederick Warne & Co. will issue immediately.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready Collar's 'Shorter Eysenbach' for the study of German. Their 'Ancient History,' by Prof. Myers, is about to be translated into Arabic.

Prof. O. B. Super of Dickinson College has annotated Erckmann-Chatrian's 'Waterloo' for D. C. Heath & Co.'s "Modern Language Series."

The announcement of the formation of the Navy Records Society in London cannot fail to be of great interest to the students of the early history of this country. Though the main object of the Society will be to render accessible the sources of English naval history, and to trace its obscure origin and early development, it will not confine its labors to the days of Elizabeth and the Stuarts. The Society's first publication will be the official documents relating to the fleet commanded by Lord Howard of Effingham, which defeated the Spanish Armada. This will be followed by the letters of Admiral Hood from the West Indies, 1780-3, and the memoir of Capt. Stephen Martin. Among the MSS. whose publication the Council has under consideration is the private journal of Rear-Admiral Bartholomew James, 1765-99. The latter officer assisted in the reduction of New York in 1776, and was taken prisoner at Yorktown when serving as lieutenant on board the *Charon*. The annual subscription is one guinea, entitling the member to receive one copy of all works issued by the Society during the year.

A new edition has been called for of Tristram's gossipy 'Coaching Days and Coaching Ways' (Macmillan)—two, in fact, but this before us is not the *édition de luxe*, though handier for reading, and most tastefully printed and bound. It contains the 214 pen-and-ink illustrations by Hugh Thomson and Herbert Railton, and is altogether an appetizing volume.

A reprint, by Lee & Shepard, of Sumner's

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Boston oration on 'The True Grandeur of Nations,' coming upon the heels of an arbitration which has dissipated the war-cloud between this country and England, must be thought opportune. The prospect of war at once with Mexico (over Texas) and Great Britain (over the Oregon boundary) was what determined the Fourth of July theme in 1845. Sumner's financial argument against militarism and bloodshed every reader can now reinforce with the prodigality of pensions attendant upon a righteous and, in its main results, a beneficent war.

The two ladies (as we may infer) who have edited the 'Phillips Brooks Year-book' just issued by E. P. Dutton & Co. have eked out their pages of selections, carefully referred to the original source, with much good borrowed verse, often very fitly joined with the prose extract. Incidentally they have given a glimpse of Bishop Brooks's own poetic reading, where he cites passages in aid of his text. Emerson is thus used three times, Tennyson twice, Shelley, Wordsworth, and Coleridge each once—but the last, in his "Love, Hope, and Patience in Education," undergoes a strange transformation by clipping and substitution. The book is attractively manufactured.

A thin volume of 'Reminiscences of Early Anti-Slavery Days,' privately printed at the Riverside Press, is from the pen of Miss Sarah H. Southwick, a member of a prosperous Quaker family and connection which were of the greatest service to the editor of the *Liberator* and to the abolition cause. The writer says 'none too much of the Southwicks and Winslows, and aims chiefly to supplement larger narratives of the events which came under her observation with small details and personal impressions. But Miss Southwick was really almost omnipresent for the great occasions, being in the very midst of the Boston mob of 1835, hearing Wendell Phillips rebuke Austin at the Lovejoy meeting in Faneuil Hall in 1837, being among the mobbed audience at Pennsylvania Hall in 1838 and witnessing the consequent destruction of that building, attending the meeting of the American Anti-Slavery Society in New York in 1840 at which the great schism took place, being present at Frederick Douglass's début at Nantucket, etc. Her Boston home was a refuge for George Thompson in his deadly peril in 1835, and she once had the rare privilege of hearing that consummate orator repeat a speech of Edward Everett, just listened to, "nearly word for word, imitating him by voice and gesture." Her testimony to Thompson's charm of manner, in public and private, accords with the traditions. Very just, also, are Miss Southwick's appreciations of Mrs. Chapman and the Weston sisters. The simple narrative, which is quaintly illustrated with facsimiles of anti-slavery symbols and documents, is instinct with humanity and breeding, and no memoir has appeared better calculated to stimulate curiosity as to the epoch and the reformers to which it relates, or to propitiate the prejudiced. For this reason it is a pity that the edition is limited, and not for general circulation; but some copies, we may hope, will find their way into public libraries.

The combined catalogues of the several publishing houses which are bound up in the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual for 1893' make a bulk slightly inferior to that of 1892, if not enough to tell in the handling. This indispensable volume needs no further remark when the issue of it has been chronicled but our eye falls on the advertisement in the front of it, and for the benefit of the curious we will say that the now famous "Rudolph Indexer" is there figured in its three forms of book, case, and cabinet, along with the Rudolph card-cutter.

Mr. W. M. Griswold, Cambridge, Mass., who has already made up one stout volume of his serviceable 'Descriptive Lists of Novels,' continues to extend the series, Norway and Germany being his latest issues. He also improves upon the lists already published, and we have from him copiously intercalated reissues of the 'Descriptive List of Novels and Tales Dealing with American Country Life,' and of the French and British lists respectively.

We have received Part II. of Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft's 'Book of the Fair' (Chicago: The Bancroft Co.). The narrative is prolix and disorderly, and not too trustworthy in detail. On p. 62 we read of the New York State Building that the design "is the old Van Rensselaer residence of its metropolis"—whatever that may be; whereas it is an independent and palatial design. Nor is it correct to say of the statued front of the Pennsylvania Building, that it is "a facsimile of Independence Hall." Reading is made difficult by the balanced illustrations; the text being carried across, instead of up and down beside, the illustration. Finally, these process cuts, which are the best thing about the book (especially when they show buildings and grounds in early stages of preparation), are scattered with little or no reference to the immediate letterpress.

The two leading articles of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for June, a description of the Andes of western Colombia, and considerations of the contraction theory of mountain construction and of the condition of the interior of the earth, are of a purely scientific character. Among the shorter papers, however, is a report from Lieut. v. Höhnel, giving some further account of the Astor Chanler expedition in eastern Africa, which is of general interest. From this it appears that, during the last week of January, in an attempt to seize forcibly cattle which the natives had refused to sell, the expedition was attacked by the Wa-Msa'ra—apparently a Masai tribe—and would have been destroyed but for the Mannlicher rifles with which it was armed. Several were killed or wounded, and the remainder finally escaped only by a timely fog which concealed their flight. Naturally the native losses were "far greater" (*ungleich grosser*). The July number contains a description of the northwestern part of the Argentine Republic, with especial relation to its soil. It is illustrated by two maps, the one showing the various heights, the watersheds and the limits of the deserts, the other especially the distribution of the vegetation, both wild and cultivated. Sugar plantations and vineyards seem to occupy the largest space under cultivation. This is followed by an account of the recent earthquakes at Zante, and a brief sketch, with a map, of Maistre's unsuccessful attempt to reach Lake Tsad from the Congo.

Early numbers of the *Century Magazine* will contain an unpublished diary of the secretary of the admiral in charge of the ship which conveyed Napoleon to St. Helena, thus checking Las Cases's Memoirs for the same voyage, and supplementing the magazine's recent account of the deportation to Elba.

The eighteenth annual report of the Boston Park Commissioners is, like its predecessors, a document valuable beyond local limits. It shows the progress up to February 1, 1893, of that system of pleasure grounds and connecting driveways in which Boston seems likely to surpass any city in the world, so great are the natural advantages of its environs, and so timely-wise have been the steps taken by State and municipality to improve these advantages to the utmost. Photographic views, maps, tables, and the text of statutes accompany the several reports. A genuine Boston notion is seen in the Massachusetts Emergency and Hygiene Association, which has had charge of the women's gymnasium on the bank of the Charles River, to which and to its equally public playground for children have flocked Jews in preponderance, Irish in next greater number, "then the colored people, then Poles and Germans." "At least two hundred working-girls a week, from eighteen to twenty-five years of age, have practised in the gymnasium, and to none has the exercise been of greater benefit than to them."

—The growth of the book collections of Cornell University during the academic year 1892–3 is most gratifying; perhaps unexampled in our college records. The aggregate falls a trifle short of 40,000 volumes. The books may be grouped under four heads: (1) the Moak law library, 13,000; (2) the Zarncke collection, 13,000; (3) bought out of the general library appropriation or donated by various persons, 10,500; (4) the Fiske Dante collection, 1,650. Of the Moak library, the gift of the family of the late Judge Boardman, it is enough to say that it is complete in its collection of Reports of English Courts and of all courts in the English language, *e. g.*, the old Year Books *ab initio*, all the Scotch, Irish, Canadian, Hawaiian, New Zealand, Australian Reports. It is fuller than the State Law Library at Albany, and as full as the Library of the Bar Association of New York city, probably fuller than the Harvard collection. Among the choice works under the second head we note the London, Edinburgh, and Dublin *Philosophical Magazine*, 1798 on; the *Preussische Jahrbücher;* London *Economist;* Journals of the Houses of Lords and Commons, British Statutes at Large, *Oesterreichische Militär-Zeitschrift*, Loddiges's 'Botanical Cabinet,' Sydenham Society (Old and New), "Pléiade Française" (Marty-Laveaux), and an almost complete collection of Dutch, Low German, Danish, Swedish, Icelandic lexicons. Of the Zarncke collection, it is quite impossible to give an idea of the variety and completeness. It is very rich in works upon the history of German Universities; almost, if not quite, exhaustive in Lessingiana; undoubtedly unique in Schelmuffsky literature (Christian Reuter); in Goetheana, surpassed only by one or two University collections in Germany; very rich in everything pertaining to general German literature and Germanic philology, and bringing many valuable additions to Romance and English philology. Of Prof. Willard Fiske's remarkable Dante collection we have already spoken. We will add that in size and value it is unsurpassed in England or America. It is decidedly superior to the Bodleian, somewhat to the Harvard, and about equal to the British Museum. In view of the foregoing, and of the general equipment of the University Library in the departments of science, history, and literature, the alumni of Cornell have reason to look forward to the twenty-fifth anniversary in October next with pride and satisfaction.

—A stout volume of four hundred and fifty pages on 'Benjamin Franklin and the University of Pennsylvania,' edited by Prof. Francis Newton Thorpe, has been issued by the Bureau of Education at Washington. It is the second of a series of monographs, succeeding 'Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia,'

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edited by Prof. H. B. Adams. It is illustrated with portraits of Franklin, of the first Provost, Dr. Wm. Smith, and of the present Provost, Dr. Pepper, and views of the University buildings, more than forty in all, to assist the text. It is composed very much in the fashion of other "Circulars of Information" from the same Bureau. The editor writes a long disquisition to show the great service done to education in this country by Franklin in his plan for the Academy, later on the College of Philadelphia, and traces its history through colonial days, through the trying times of the Revolution, to its reorganization as the University of Pennsylvania, and on past its long period of mere existence to the more active and successful growth of our own times. The Provost, members of the Board of Trustees and of the various Faculties and Departments, and representative graduates, supply separate chapters on subjects in which they are specially interested, so that there is frequent repetition of salient facts, and a variety of methods of treating them. In the main, the story is not very novel nor very instructive. There is the same ambition that marked each colony to have its own institution for higher education, but in Pennsylvania neither Government nor people showed much zeal in the cause. It was left to men of Franklin's type, and to the energy of Provost Smith, who begged throughout the three kingdoms and in the South and the West Indies. The dreary neglect of the first half of this century ended in a revival of public spirit after the war and in a flood of private benefactions and some State and city aid that have made the additions of the last ten or twenty years greater than all earlier endowments. The title 'Jefferson and the University of Virginia' naturally suggested the taking headline of this account of the University of Pennsylvania, but it is hard to see what corresponding merit Franklin can claim with Jefferson. With characteristic shrewdness he aimed at establishing a high school suited to his times, but, with the business-like sense that marked his whole career, he builded for the needs of his own day and generation. That the Academy should grow into a College was natural enough, but that it should at last be a University in fact as well as in name was far beyond his dreams, and he was not given to dreaming. The present strength of the University is due to men of our own time, and the University of Pennsylvania is to-day the final outcome of the general elevation of the needs and standards of higher schools of education. Jefferson really did plan the University of Virginia, and it is to-day largely what he had in mind.

—Prof. Henry Carrington Bolton's 'Select Bibliography of Chemistry, 1492–1892' (Washington: Smithsonian Institution) is the second valuable bibliography with which the author has enriched the science of chemistry, the first being the well-known and highly esteemed 'Catalogue of Scientific and Technical Periodicals, 1665–1882.' Add to these various smaller special bibliographies, and the author's claim to the gratitude of his fellow-chemists must stand unquestioned. The bulky work before us is divided into seven sections, namely, of Bibliography, of Dictionaries, of History, of Biography, of Pure and Applied Chemistry, of Alchemy, and of Periodicals—the last being an excerpt from the second catalogue above referred to. In all the sections except those of Biography and Periodicals, the titles are arranged alphabetically. In the section of Biography the titles are placed under the names of the persons described, with cross-references from the authors. In the section of Periodicals the titles are arranged alphabetically by the first word, articles and "New" excepted, also with cross-references from the editors. Many very valuable and interesting notes have been introduced. The work does not profess to be a complete but (as its title indicates) only a select bibliography. Of course there will be some difference of opinion as to what should have been omitted and what should have been inserted, but this is unavoidable. A curious special table gives the number of titles in the several languages. For instance, there are 5 in Arabic, 29 in Chinese, 1 in Finnish, 1 each in Gujerati, Hebrew, Hindi, and Welsh. The book is a monument of well-directed and well-executed labor, and must become a standard work of reference. It is well and clearly printed. The titles in foreign languages have all been carefully revised by persons to whom these languages are native or at least familiar. There is a complete subject-index, but, in spite of the alphabetical form, an author-index would also have been acceptable.

—Mr. Emerson face to face with nature in the Adirondack "Philosophers' Camp," as described by Mr. Stillman in the August *Century*, recalls to a correspondent an unwritten leaf in the wildwood experience of the Concord sage. He writes:

"About 1877 it was my fortune to enjoy an hour's talk with Emerson beneath his own roof. He spoke of John Muir, who had been one of his guides in the Yosemite region, and who has given name to the chiefest among ten thousand glaciers. 'Muir,' said he, 'I was sorry to part with so soon. No scholarly man had looked so long and so lovingly upon the sublimities there. We arrived at the Big Trees before noon, had a lunch and a leisurely survey of the giants. We penetrated the dark caverns burned in the trunks of some, walked around others, wondered that the branches on the tops were so small while those fallen to the earth were themselves like thick trees. Then our party, *largely business men from Boston and elsewhere*, were eager to move on. But when I spoke of the matter to Muir he seemed equally surprised and grieved, in fact declared it "an injury and sullenness against Nature" to turn our backs so abruptly on her most marvellous works. I urged that our business demanded haste, and he rejoined that during years of mountaineering he had never approached the giants of Calaveras or Mariposa without making his camp beneath them. "We must go," said I, "and you cannot stay, for the horse you ride is ours." His answer was, "A horse is nothing to me. I have almost always come hither without one, and nowhere am I so much at home as among these chief things of the ancient mountains." Nor was he to be moved from his purpose, and so we reluctantly parted from him there, leaving him a true child of Nature in the solitude, alone but no more solitary than an infant in its mother's bosom.'"

—In Dr. Friedrich Klaeber's 'Das Bild bei Chaucer' (Berlin: Heinrich) students of English have a work of nearly 500 pages on Chaucer's use of figurative language—a work which they will read (or consult) with mixed feelings. The extensive and well-arranged collection of material will be welcome to scholars, and will probably interest even that sort of literary critic who instinctively guards the fine edge of his perceptions from contact with stubborn masses of linguistic and stylistic facts. There is much that is pedantic in the book, however, and not a little that is raw. As an example of elaborate pedantry we may instance the chapter on methods of introducing comparisons and metaphors, which is nearly all lumber. The author's immaturity of judgment is exemplified whenever he essays criticism. Particularly diverting is the grave sentence in which, using novelty in the flowers of rhetoric as the touchstone of originality, he denies to Chaucer the title of "an original genius of the first order" (p. 413). We fear that Dr. Klaeber does not understand his author so very well, though it must be admitted that he has a full appreciation of some of the coarser tales or parts of tales. He is guilty of the tiresome blunder of talking about Chaucer's naïveté; he discovers an involuntarily. comic effect in lines where every word is used with the nicest art; he fails to grasp the intention of the poet in passages in which there is an attempt at "local color." His errors in details of interpretation are not few. For *elvish* he has no better gloss than *einfältig* (p. 173); for *cheste of every care* he has an ingeniously futile explanation (p. 392); and the tantalizing "he tolde a tale of Wade," which was well understood in the sixteenth century, loses all its possibilities of meaning under his treatment (p. 196). His imagination does not even rise to the height of the phrase *maken him a howve above a calle* (p. 430). His crowning exploit is the detection of a beastly pun in an innocent jest of Pandar's (p. 436). As compensation for this, he has overlooked the quip in the "high style" over which the Squire could not climb. His dissection of certain long descriptive passages (see p. 330, for example) has in its way not been surpassed since the author of 'Modern Painters' went botanizing in "Lycidas." But it is easy to find fault with details. After all, Dr. Klaeber has written a useful book, which Chaucerians will have to buy.

—One of the most gifted of German-American poets, Mr. Hermann Rosenthal, has published a metrical translation of the "Song of Songs" ('Das Lied der Lieder,' New York: The International News Co.) as a companion booklet to his version of Ecclesiastes, which appeared a number of years ago. The translation deserves high praise, alike for the intrinsic merit of its melodious verse and for the critical acumen which, in several instances, has elucidated obscurities in the original that have baffled not a few commentators. A random comparison of Prof. Ernst Meier's literal

> "Erhebe dich, Nordwind,
> Und komm doch, o Südwind,
> Durchwehe meinen Garten,
> Dass ströme sein Balsamduft!
> Damit komme mein Geliebter
> Zu seinem Garten
> Und geniessen möge
> Sein edles Obst."

and Mr. Rosenthal's

> "Erwache Nordwind, fächle kühle Luft,
> Erbrause Südwind, ströme würz'gen Duft,
> Das meinen Garten Balsambauch versüsse,
> Dass mein Geliebter nahe, mich begrüsse,
> Dass er des Gartens reife Frucht geniesse,"

shows at how slight a sacrifice of literalness the rhymed version succeeds in rendering the poetic flavor of the original. Mr. Rosenthal is master of more than one idiom. He was known in Russia fifteen years ago as a versatile littérateur and as the editor of the *Sarya* (the *Dawn*), published at Kiev. He has attested his knowledge of Hebrew by his own writings in that language, which include a biography of the naturalist Karl Vogt, written before he was twenty years of age. His ingenious surmises as to the authorship of the "Song of Songs," which he assigns to a female hand, attracted the attention of such eminent Hebraists as the late Michael Heilprin and Dr. S. Adler.

—The Royal Geographical Society of London has taken definite action upon the admission of women to fellowship in that body. At a special and largely attended meeting of the Society held on the 3d of July last, which was called for a reconsideration of a previous vote on the same question, it was decided that women shall

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not be permitted to attach to their names the much-coveted letters F.R.G.S. This decision, of course, does not affect the status of the few women who already enjoy the distinction of membership, and who will now naturally hold to their seats with a double tenacity. Friends of intellectual activity will deplore this action of the Society, which seems to have been prompted through a "club" feeling rather than through the recognition that women do not possess the necessary qualifications for membership in a body whose first function is the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge regarding the earth's surface. The deciding vote was a close one, 158 to 172, and it is gratifying to know that the strength of the Council was with the minority, and that among the champions for the women's cause were some of the most distinguished members of the Society and some of the ablest minds of the country. It is to be regretted that the opinions of such men as Sir John Lubbock, the Earl of Mayo, Lord Northbrook (past President of the Royal Asiatic Society), Sir William Flower, and Mr. Douglas Freshfield should not carry more weight in a question of this kind than the opinions of men like Mr. Curzon and Mr. Hicks, who seem to have taken upon themselves the chief task of engineering the opposition.

RUSKIN AS EXPOUNDED BY A RUSKINIAN.

The Life and Work of John Ruskin. By W. G. Collingwood, M.A., etc. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

PERHAPS no justly famous man could so badly endure the test of having his biography written in his lifetime, by a friend or an enemy, as Mr. Ruskin. There is such an enormous discrepancy between his life and his work that no writer with any sense of humor could seriously attempt to carry out a comparison of them. Mr. Collingwood, unfortunately for the effect he might produce on the reputation of Mr. Ruskin as a reformer—were that not already settled beyond the power of his own generation to modify it—has no sense of humor and very little of what may be termed comparative phrenometry. He is too blind a partisan of his master and sits too close to his feet to be able to form an estimate of him, either as a thinker or as a worker, to see him in the light in which the world at large either sees him now or is likely to see him in the future. His book, which, for the rest, is a noble tribute to his own devotion to its subject, and a by no means valueless contribution to the history of a man who will always be an object of great interest in the history of literature, is otherwise simply a labored and almost indiscriminate as well as unintelligent laudation of all Mr. Ruskin has ever done or proposed to do; for though in two or three slight matters Mr. Collingwood ventures on deprecatory criticism, it is as one would remark that there are spots even on the sun.

In point of fact, the man John Ruskin and the reformer John Ruskin are in the nature of a complete antithesis—the former a splendid, pathetic, and noble instance of consistent and logical devotion to the principles he laid down for the guidance of his fellow-men, and the latter as complete a failure in every attempt to guide them, so far as present results can be seen. He is a signal example of the justice of Emerson's warning to beware of the man who thinks he has come with an inspiration. His early intellectual life was an isolated one, the later a morbid one. Educated as a boy in a narrow Puritanism, favored by a conscientiousness intense to morbidness, he never became a man of the world even in the best sense of the term, and refused to modify his views in accordance with the results of experience or the decisions of common sense in regard to the subjects which interested him. As he himself once expressed himself, "his views were not opinions, but positive knowledge"; but unfortunately he had too often shown, by his honest and creditable change of views held at one time for others quite different, that his positive knowledge was too partial to be asserted with so great definiteness, and his absolute sincerity did not protect his authority from wide and increasing protest, so that, except with people ignorant of art, or very narrow and exclusive in their conceptions of it, his art teachings have no longer any interest, while his political and politico-economical theories have never had any hold on practical people, sublime and inspired by a true love of humanity as some of them are.

The most masterly and thoughtful among the artists even of England never accepted Mr. Ruskin's views of art, nor did the scientists accept his geological and cosmic theories; and if one may judge of the final result of the contemplation of his work by the tendency up to the present, which is all that a man of the present is competent to do, all that will remain of his labors as a permanent acquisition to the world is the purely literary—his masterly eloquence, his intense worship of nature, and his lofty exhortations to a noble and unselfish life; a classification with Plato and the pure idealists, but not with men of science, or even with Carlyle and Emerson. There was always something of insanity in his way of looking at things, the lofty egotism which insists on its exclusive view and refuses to embrace the broader insight of an entire humanity—which, indeed, by its limitations is unable to perceive what that insight has discovered. The mental malady of the insane is in the inability to coordinate their faculties with those of the people around them and with facts, to maintain the constant mental contact with others, or, as it is commonly said, to "keep touch" with the general intelligence of our fellows, and this to a certain extent was in Ruskin's nature. He was an intellectual egotist, though a most unselfish one.

While, therefore, his life is one which becomes of the highest interest as biography, and deserves a far more thorough and honest study than the author of this book has given it, or than it can have from any one who has known or judged him in the heat of the controversies his theories have produced, Ruskin's work is of no more practical interest or value than that of the 'Republic' of Plato or any other Utopia of the poets and dreamers; and all his devotion to the interests of art in his work at Oxford, or his attempts at Christian socialism through the St. George community, have resulted in nothing more than the excitement of an enthusiasm very partial and very ineffective. His theories of art never floated across the Channel, and in England and America produced only a temporary fever of morbid intensity in nature-transcription which has less to do with art than it has with science, but more with the robust healthy love of outdoor nature than with either. His social theories took no account of the experience of humanity, but, convinced that he had found the panacea for the unhappiness of human life, and that he was made to be the leader of a new exodus from the selfishness of ordinary being, he threw himself into the movement with his money and his personality, with no study of the causes of past failures of dreamers like himself, and with only this difference between him and them, that he looked at the undertaking as a born leader and representative of the strong rule of the right man, which he imagined to have been the cause of the virtues of the middle ages. He dreamed history as he dreamed the reformation of humanity.

If the author of this Life had had any sense of humor, he would have omitted passages like the following:

"Ruskin's art-criticism fought its way to the front long ago. His economy is now practically accepted. His religious teaching has not yet been listened to. That must wait until this nineteenth century—as he put it in 1845—'has, I cannot say breathed, but *steamed* its last.'"

"But in the life of a thinker and leader of men, like Ruskin, the question becomes more than a matter of curiosity. We all admit him to be sincere; but is he sound? Or if infallibility be put out of the question, is he more—or less—logical, rational, coherent in mental development than other men to whom we listen and in whom we trust for opinion and advice?

"To this I think there is only one answer. The more I study his life, the more I see that his work is not irresponsible and eccentric. The careful student should be able to trace his genius, down to the end, in continuous and rational progression. Passing over defined intervals of mental disease, and allowing for vehemence of expression—partly characteristic, partly the temporary effect of the penumbra of the storm-cloud—his mental development, I make bold to say, is normal and logical throughout his life. And I believe that when his work can be looked back upon as a whole, with proper understanding of its environment and with full knowledge of its circumstances, the common reproach of insanity made against each new manifestation of his mind will then be scorned as an exploded prejudice."

"In the great composers of Florence and Venice he found a quality of abstract design which tallied with his experience of what was beautiful in nature. Aiguilles and glaciers, drawn as he had drawn them, and the figure subjects of severe Italian draughtsmen, are beautiful by the same laws of composition, however different the associations they suggest."

It is unnecessary to say that the views of Ruskin and his work held by the author are those of a devotee, and all that the latter asserts and prophesies as to the effect of Ruskin's teachings on the world at large marks the blind ignorance of the world which belongs to a devotee. But while we might accept Mr. Collingwood as the preacher of Ruskinism pure and simple, and leave the doctrinal part of his elaborate essay to the judgment of time, it is not permissible to ignore the false color he gives to many transactions in Ruskin's life or connected with it. Thus, when he says that Pre-Raphaelitism "was the outcome of a general tendency which *he, more than any other man*, had helped to start; and it was the fulfilment, though in a way he had not intended, of his wishes, . . . it [his advice] was beginning to be accepted by many, but with timidity and modifications, etc.," he makes a gross misstatement of the facts in the case, for Ruskin had nothing to do with the early Pre-Raphaelite movement, and this has been authoritatively declared by the men who began it, for none of them had ever read ten pages of Ruskin's 'Modern Painters' at the time the movement began, nor were there, as our author insinuates, any precursors in England, though in France and Italy there had been, and in a certain way in Germany. And of all the illogical conclusions which could be put in words, the statement that "his advice to go to nature, selecting nothing, rejecting nothing, and scorning nothing, had been offered to landscape students, and it had involved the acceptance of Turner as their great exemplar and ultimate standard," is the most

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illogical, for the practice of Turner was directly antagonistic to any such precept. Of this Mr. Collingwood might have convinced himself by reading what Mr. Hamerton has written on the subject. What Ruskin really did, the author has told in another place, though it has a very different meaning from that which he sees in it: "Just in the same way, our young Aristotelian, by beginning with the observed facts of nature—truths, he called them—and the practice, not the precept, of great artists, superseded the eighteenth-century academic-art theories and created a perfectly new school of criticism, which, however erring or incomplete in details or misapplied in corollaries, did for English art what Aristotle did for Greek ethics." What "he really did" was to make people believe that they were critics of art because they could see whether a picture represented nature literally or not, and persuade them that when they pronounced on a question of fidelity, they had been judging of art; *i. e.*, he enabled ignorance of art to erect itself into a canon of criticism.

But the book is throughout marked by this disingenuous treatment of the facts of Mr. Ruskin's life. "He could have been a painter if he had devoted himself to painting—not a Turner or a Titian, but a sound practitioner, much above the average," is the author's opinion, which is directly opposed to that of Mr. Ruskin, who said that if he had had the ability to become a painter, he would probably never have written a book, and here he was correct in his estimate of himself, for he had no eye for color, though a very great impressibility to it, and up to the last could see things only in detail, while his idea that Turner had any definite relation to Nature, or could ever be reconciled with the facts of her, is proof enough that his perception of her was too imperfect ever to have given rise to even an average art. The public, knowing nothing of art, takes his fidelity to detail as correctness of vision, but the real student of art knows that there is an impassable gulf between his imitation of the facts of nature and any form of true art. Mr. Collingwood is, consciously or unconsciously, trying to fight over battles which have been settled long ago by the collective judgment of the artists of all the world; and, however the single artist may err in a collective judgment, collectively the artistic judgment determines, and must determine, all questions of art, as that of collective scientists must of science.

The story of Ruskin's marriage and divorce, which was one of the gravest affairs of his life, and which as such should have been stated for what it really was, or simply but frankly put aside for reasons given, is really totally misstated, with a like falsification of the color of the biography. The subsequent love affair with a young lady in Ireland is equally disguised. When Mr. Collingwood deals with Ruskin's relations with Rossetti, he says: "And as editors refused them [the poems of Rossetti], he made himself responsible for the cost of their publication, both in the case of the 'Early Italian Poets,' I believe, and also in the case of the 'Poems' in 1868. It was only afterwards, when Rossetti gave way to chloral and misanthropy, and became inaccessible to nearly all his old friends, that he and Mr. Ruskin drifted apart." The facts are that Mr. Ruskin made himself responsible for the cost of the 'Early Italian Poets' in 1861, but there was no publication of original poems until 1870, when Ruskin and Rossetti had "drifted apart" for five years, not owing to chloral or misanthropy, but to the painter becoming impatient of the efforts of the critic to make him, to use the expression of another artist who knew Ruskin well, "hold the brush while Ruskin painted," and perhaps because *au fond* there was no real artistic sympathy between the two. Ruskin posed not merely as the defender of the Pre-Raphaelites, but as their master and teacher, and they rebelled. When Rossetti fell into the habit of taking chloral, he had no relations whatever with Ruskin.

Again, we are told that "His pupil, Signor Giacomo Boni, after recommending himself in Venice as the practical exponent of these principles at the Ducal Palace, has lately been appointed by the Government to the post of director of the monuments of Italy, etc."; and in another place Mr. Collingwood speaks of Boni as "the *capo d'opera* of the Ducal Palace." The fact is that Signor Boni was no more the pupil of Ruskin than any reader of his works might be, and was no adherent of his doctrines at any time, while he has never been, in relation to the Ducal Palace, anything more than the assistant of Signor Vendrasco, who was, not the *capo d'opera* of the Ducal Palace (which is commonly supposed to be the "Adam and Eve" capital or the "Noah" at the corner of the Ponte della Paglia), but the foreman of the works for the restoration of the palace, and Signor Boni had never anything to do with either restoring or preserving the ancient sculptures. He is now one of the inspectors of monuments of which each province in Italy has one; his province, we believe, being Apulia.

The history of Ruskin's religious evolution, which, one would say, was one of the important items in a man's life when it has been of such importance as Ruskin's, is no more honest or instructive. But returning to the principal matter, it was long ago settled in the general mind of earnest students of art in its largest sense that Ruskin's teachings, whatever may be their force and value in the provinces of morality and social economy as abstract ethics applied to human conduct, are in the last degree misleading for art; and his pretension of setting up as a teacher of art, or even of drawing, had never any justification, for no artist who has mastered the higher elements, either of design or of color, has ever accepted the teaching of Ruskin as true guidance. Mr. Collingwood quotes sarcastically a passage from an article by Mr. Stillman that "Mr. Ruskin never seemed to understand style in drawing," but he has furnished the proof in what he writes of Ruskin's appreciation of Miss Alexander and her work: "As to style, she fulfilled his own teaching of bygone years—the combination of free point-work with the pure line without blotting or bungling; and her sense of color and texture compensated for any weakness in anatomy and composition." Now, without any disparagement of Miss Alexander's work, which is as sincere and loving as drawing can be, but childish in the extreme and utterly destitute of style as the word is applied to genuine art, one may say with a great painter, Ruskin's warm personal friend, that "we can forgive him not appreciating Michael Angelo, but not his admiration of Miss Alexander." And, in fact, this is the kind of work that Ruskin has always done, and well done, and most warmly appreciated in others, but it is not in the road to art.

No man of our time has better deserved the personal appreciation he has received from the finest intellects—his contemporaries, Carlyle, Lowell, Froude, Thackeray, Norton, and the heads of Oxford; but this is due to the quality of the man and to the influence he had rather on the intellectual than on the artistic life of the times. And no one who is an authority in art, as no one who is an authority in geology, in political economy, or in theology, has ever stood up as his supporter in the respective province. The breezy quality of his thought, his originality, his passionate earnestness, and the very waywardness which was like a prophecy of his final condition, aroused interest in all he said; and the man remains one of the intellectual features of that nineteenth century which he so much abused and disparaged, never realizing how much better in reality it is than his beloved Middle Ages, with their lordly paternal virtues and cathedral-building excellence. His work, beyond its literary quality and its provocation to contradiction and discussion, is like sand-castles at the seaside; neither his art nor his sociology has solid foundation, and the most pathetic declaration of the simple-minded devotion of our author to his idol is in the passage quoted above: "His art-criticism fought its way to the front long ago. His economy is now practically accepted." The effect of 'Modern Painters' on the style of the crowd of emulating art-critics is beginning to pass away, but our author, true to his ideals, keeps something of it, though like a boy wielding his great ancestor's broadsword. The best sample given us in the book is worth quotation, not perhaps as a model of style, but to show the author's appreciation of it:

"To read 'Fors' is like being out in a thunder-storm. At first, you open the book with interest, to watch the signs of the times. While you climb your mountain—shall we say the Old Man of Coniston?—at unawares there is a darkening of the cloud upon you, and the tension of instinctive dread, as image after image arises of misery and murder and lingering death, with here and there a streak of sun in the foreground, only throwing the wildness of the scene into more rugged relief; and through the gaps you see broad fields of ancient history, like lands of promise left behind. By and by the gloom wraps you. The old thunder of the Ruskinian paragraph, shortened now to whip-lash cracks, reverberates unremittingly from point to point, raising echoes, sounding deeps; *allusions, suggestions, intimations*, stirring the realm of chaos, that ordinarily we are glad to let slumber, but now terribly discern, by flashes of thought, most unexpectedly arriving. Fascinated by the hammer play of Thor, berserking among rime-giants—customs that 'hang upon us, heavy as frost'—you begin to applaud; when a sudden stroke rolls your own standpoint into the abyss. But if you can climb forward, undismayed, to the summit, the storm drifts by; and you see the world again, all new, beneath you—how rippling in Thor's laughter, how tenderly veiled in his tears!"

What is most interesting and valuable in the book is the account of Ruskin's present life at Brantwood, for, as a man, no reader of the English literature of the day, loving honest manhood and noble life, can lose his interest in John Ruskin, though he will certainly wish him, some time, a more intelligent biographer. He, when he comes, will find some things in Mr. Collingwood's book of real utility, when properly sifted, for the understanding of the man, if not of his work.

The Simple Adventures of a Memsahib. By Sara Jeannette Duncan. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

From the Five Rivers. By Mrs. F. A. Steel. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

WHAT with Aliph Cheem and Rudyard Kipling, the Theosophists and the Buddhist propaganda, the visiting Rajahs at the White City, the North German Lloyd service to the Mediterranean, and the fate of silver in India, it would seem—despite all the Sanskrit professors

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tell us—as if Uncle Sam and his dusky Oriental cousins had never been so much to each other before, except, perhaps, at the time when our civil war raised such a tremendous excitement among the cotton-merchants of Colaba, at the tip of Bombay Island. But now come two more volumes to draw the West still nearer to the East. The first is a charming series of sketches of the various phases of the social and domestic life of a young couple of Anglo-Indians. Were we to insist upon a pedantically truthful title, we should amend it to 'The Experiences of a Memsahib,' but the dividing line between "adventures" and "experiences" is doubtless a vague one, and perhaps "*simple*-adventures," with italics and a hyphen, is just on the line. The book has neither plot nor love-story nor other meretricious seduction of the sort. The incidents are loosely attached to a Mrs. Browne, *née* Peachy; but Mrs. Browne, like the Hindu One-in-All of the Vedanta, is a wholly impersonal entity, an algebraic *a* for the genus Memsahib; and the author might have changed the name from chapter to chapter without serious damage to her recital. The said recital is put into the mouth of "Mrs. Perth Macintyre," who has been "out here only twenty-two years." Doubtless an old stager will smile very pensively at the thought of all the author has not seen, and easily forgive her this guileless little fiction on the score of all she has seen and (if we may be excused) "caught on to."

The book is bright and entertaining throughout. We can enjoy everything at our ease, without going to India, without perspiring under a punkah, without feeling nervous before the Viceroy; the pathos and humor of the scene when the embryo Memsahib bids adieu to her Wiltshire relatives on the deck of the P. and O. steamer; her wedding in Calcutta Cathedral; her installation as Memsahib, Mrs. Browne; the marshalling before her of her house-servants, including the scullion, who "wore a dhoty and an expression of dejection," and the washerman, who pounds your linen between two stones just as he did in the Sanskrit books twenty-five hundred years ago; the Viceregal drawing-room; the going to dinner, "quite quietly" and otherwise; the admirable satire on globe-trotters in general and the Parliamentary globe-trotter in particular, instanced by Mr. Jonas Batcham, M.P., in ignorant and ridiculous quest of native grievances to "report upon" at home; and more the like, and unlike. A comfortable chapter takes us through the discomforts, or the terrors, of the heat, the burst of the monsoon, the rains, and the ensuing mugginess. And, as an offset to this, we take a trip to "the Hills," and end with a sight of "the Snows," and, as a climax, the delights of a shiver.

Notably amusing is the way (p. 227) in which a Memsahib "picks up" Hindustani:

"From Bengal and Bombay, from Madras and the Punjab, a preposition from Persia, a conjunction from Cashmere, a noun from the Nilgherries. . . . She prefers to improve it [her Hindustani] by the admixture of a little English; and the effect upon the native mind is quite the same. It really doesn't matter whether you say, 'That is very *corab* ['bad'], you stupid *ool-ka-beta*' ['son-of-an-owl'], or use the simple Hindustani statements to express your feelings. The [added] English may adorn them, but it is the Hindustani after all that gives vitality to your remarks. '*Chokee lao*' means 'Bring a chair'; but if you put it, 'Bring me a *chokee lao*,' the meaning of the command is not seriously interfered with, besides convincing you more firmly that you have said what you wanted to say."

Mr. Townsend's numerous illustrations are admirably done, full of fun and spirit. But he has made a slip at page 222 in giving Jimmy Forbes a high collar. At 218 Mr. Jack Lovitt had made Jimmy throw all his high ones away.

Mrs. Steel's little volume is concerned with the joys and sorrows of the real natives of the Punjab. Its chief contents are half-a-dozen short stories—one humorous, the rest tragical. The first and best is "Gunesh Chund." Gunesh is a village headsman. After years of unfruitfulness, his wife bears him a child; but, alas! it is only a daughter. Even now, just as centuries ago in the days of the great law-giver Manu, a wife that bears no son may be supplanted. The story turns on the conflict between the father's strong natural affection for wife and child and the unnatural requirements of his position. The author's matter is excellent and interesting; but her style of narration is by no means lucid and flowing. Whether this be due to inability or to affectation, the result is neither pleasing nor defensible, least of all in a midsummer book.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America. 1773-1783. Vol. XVII. Nos. 1601 to 1643. February, 1893. London: B. F. Stevens.

THE arrangement of vol. xvii. is both simple and eminently satisfactory to the student wearied by the diplomatic wrangles of the foregoing volume. It is made up of forty-three papers, all letters of Lafayette, or closely related enclosures. Five of these letters have been previously translated and printed in part, twelve translated and printed entire, while twenty-six have never been previously translated or printed. With the exception of the cipher despatches and a few other papers, it is fair to say that Sparks's 'Washington' and the 'Mémoires, Correspondance et Manuscrits du Général Lafayette' (Paris, 1837-38; English translation, London, 1837), have already skimmed off the cream of this correspondence. Nevertheless, the volume before us is interesting, mainly because it is a substantial fraction of the entire mass of Lafayette's letters, and incidentally because it well supplements his correspondence with D'Estaing, edited in 1892 by M. Doniol in the *Revue d'Histoire Diplomatique*. Two ideas were uppermost in Lafayette's mind, and he never hesitated to iterate them to Vergennes, seemingly quite unsubdued if they did not immediately get the attention which his enthusiasm must have led him to expect. The condition of the American soldier, and the pressing necessity of securing "maritime superiority" to the French—these are his themes in almost every despatch. Nothing could be more ingenuous than his early proposed plan for approaching Halifax with four or five vessels, passing the batteries, shelling the town to pieces, and taking the Basin. It shows how little the young officer must have known of the topography of that imposing garrison, but it still more reveals the fact that a successful carrying of the Revolution into the lost ground of Canada was an underlying motive of the French. A great candor, the most extreme courtesy and deference to Washington, and a genuine modesty, especially after Yorktown, run through all the letters, although in No. 1613, and in several of the minor numbers of uncertain date, Lafayette hints to Vergennes that preferment would not be ungrateful to him.

Of this correspondence of Lafayette, written with all a soldier's directness and limitations, it is not possible, for the reasons given above, to speak with much freshness; attention must centre at once upon what new matter the volume offers. No. 1616 is a "Summary of the political and military Condition of America" in the hand of and probably composed by the Chevalier de Fleury, dated November 16, 1779, written, as its author admits, in a "filibustering style." Possessing no more than the usual claims to serious consideration of most French "impressions," this paper is full of a vivacious interest. Of New Hampshire the Chevalier says it is "almost of no account in the Confederation," of Hancock that he is "King of the Rabble," while Adams is a "sensible and intelligent man, but indolent on principle and by temperament." He insists that the Vermonters, "that half savage people," will always keep New York in check—a conclusion certainly warranted at that time. The Boston idea of the French seems to him to have been that they were "like pedlers, very honest thieves!" "Patriotism is non-existent at Philadelphia; it has there almost become ridiculous." He thinks South Carolina "has neither strength nor virtue," while Charleston is "open to the highest bidder." This charming prattle must close with the Chevalier's opinion of Washington: "This great man has only one fault—a very creditable one—too much virtue for the chief of a party." Lafayette states in No. 1619 that Fleury enjoyed a "very brilliant reputation in America."

Nos. 1625, 1626, 1627, 1631, 1632 are in cipher, with interlinear decipher, and have never been printed. It is natural to find them revealing somewhat intimately the actual condition of the French forces in America, especially in relation to Washington, of whom Lafayette says in No. 1625: "The French Generals and troops will be well pleased with his uprightness, his delicacy, with that noble and frank politeness which characterizes him." Again, in No. 1626: "The officers and men of the American army do not possess a shilling. The former only receive one ration, and have no clothes, nor have they, like the soldiers, the hope of receiving some from France." In a very long letter, No. 1632, of fifty pages in cipher and twenty-five in translation, the one surpassing theme is "maritime superiority," while at every point is evident the French policy of preventing an undesirable peace by furnishing sufficient munitions of war. Of late some infelicitous, but, we believe, not malicious, merriment has been made over the condition of some of the Northern troops in the war of the Revolution. Lafayette presents in this long letter a valuable counter opinion, which should be welcomed with equal pleasure. He says: "We cannot praise too highly the zeal and the discipline of the troops of New England, nearly all national, whose cause was at bottom the same, and who, also, in spite of their nakedness, and through the snow, marched willingly against the insurgents." Of the Continental troops as a whole he affirms that they "are more hardened and patient than the Europeans," and "have seen more shots fired than three-fourths of the European soldiers."

This lengthy letter raises the serious question as to how this important collection of papers is to be properly indexed. There is no pagination to the translated portion, and it is not easy to see how reference can be made to such an important incident, for instance, as the mutiny of the Pennsylvania troops stationed at Morristown and their march to Princeton. In Lafayette's first letter from Boston, of May 1, 1780 (No. 1622), he presents to Vergennes the son-in-law of Dr. Cooper, whom he plainly enough calls Johonnot; the translation, how-

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ever, gives it wrongly Johonnoh. In No. 1635 Gen. Greene's name, rightly given in the original, is changed to Green in the translation.

An Adventure in Photography. By Octave Thanet. Illustrated from photographs by the adventurers. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

It may be doubted whether the attempt to make photography funny, which is the excuse for being of this new manual, in so far as it differs from all other primers of the art-science, is likely to make it more instructive, or increase the attractiveness of photography for the hitherto unphotographic. The fun is too close a reminder of Warner to be made much account of, and the instruction is that of confessed greenhorns attempting to make proselytes. The former will be discounted by the reader and neophyte who wants to learn photography, and the latter, when the grain is culled from the chaff, will be found in any quarter-dollar treatise on the subject. The authors (for the joke is a joint affair of two women) begin by what the reader will be apt to end by—*i. e.*, making light of the whole affair:

"When my kind friends the publishers first proposed this book to me, I at once laid the proposition before my partner.

"Jane and I have taken photographs, developed photographs, and mounted photographs together for four years.

"'But we don't know enough to write a book,' said Jane.

"'And they want us to illustrate it with our own photographs,' I continued, under the impetus of my first burst of information, although I felt a distinct shock, similar to the feeling produced by unexpected cold water.

"'But we don't make good enough photographs to illustrate a book,' said Jane."

And Jane was right from the start, to adopt the style of the authors; for the book is not an addition to our knowledge of photography, nor are the illustrations such as require great experience or much skill or knowledge to produce. There is not only nothing new in the way of facts or experience in the 'Adventure,' but there are some evidences of ignorance which should have stood in the way of the present undertaking. We read:

"All this brings me to another trick of the ground-glass. It concerns what the artist calls values. If it were not for a tender conscience and some knowledge of the cost of reproducing photographs, I could fill pages with illustrations of values out of gear, as it were—fences larger than houses, and lop-sided scenery. . . . For a single example, observe, in the picture I sadly submit, the size of those black children in the foreground; they are Gullivers, and the women Lilliputians. . . . The question of values, of the harmonious arrangements of a picture, is infinitely expansive. . . . It is not only a question of proportion, it is a question of interest as well."

It is needless to remark that this writer has no conception of what "values" means, and it is one of the most important points in the photography of the day. If the ignorance is affected for the sake of chaff, the book should be passed over to the humorists, where it would stand a poor chance; if intended for instruction, the book is too elementary for beginners.

Practically, the opinions of the authors are scarcely worth more. "We are not scientific, Jane and I, and we profess no opinion; we simply know that eikonogen will get more out of a sullen plate than either pyro or hydrochinon." This, as can easily be proved, is quite contrary to "scientific" experience. "At the beginning of our adventure we tried the time-honored pyro. It was slow, it was dirty, it fogged the plates if you dared push it, and it would not work if it was not pushed! During the reign of pyro we spent the time that we could spare from the studio in scrubbing our hands." If this is chaff, again, it is poor chaff, and not the truth. We have tried, as carefully as scientific method enabled us to do, the various developing agents in use as they came before the public, heralded by the outcries of the advertisements in the trade journals, and nothing has yet been introduced which quite equals the "time-honored pyro," and, though using it continually, we do not require to scrub our hands to go into society.

"Jane and I" are too technical for good joking and too jocose for good instruction. "The experiment fails, but the principle is illustrated," as Dr. Draper used to say when his experiment in the chemistry class failed.

Some Further Recollections of a Happy Life. Selected from the Journals of Marianne North. Edited by her sister, Mrs. John Addington Symonds. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

The success of the former volume relating to Miss Marianne North's travels, with the history of her life, has induced Mrs. J. A. Symonds to edit for publication further recollections from her sister's journals, telling of the earlier journeys of this adventurous lady together with her father and sister in Europe and the East. These wanderings in lands now easily accessible to any person of moderate means who puts himself in the hands of Cook or Gaze, were thirty years ago fraught with a certain amount of difficulty and adventure which added zest to the journey, and gave rise to unforeseen incidents which lent themselves to description. Miss North tells of her experiences with such enjoyment and *verve* and such a true sense of humor that the book is delightful reading, besides which it possesses all the charm of an intimate record for her own use, perfectly sincere without the disturbing thought of an audience.

The journeys date from 1859, in the Pyrenees and Spain, and continue till 1870 through Switzerland, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, Smyrna, Athens, the Adriatic, Egypt, Palestine and Syria, the Dolomite Alps, and lastly the Riviera and Sicily. Mr. North and his daughters travelled with little baggage and few insular prejudices; moreover, they had a great sense of enjoyment of things new and beautiful. They talked to the people they met of every class, and so got to know a great deal about the countries they passed through; they also came upon many people of their time now known to fame—Emin Pasha, Lady Duff Gordon, Palgrave, Mr. Finlay, Gen. Church (the hero of the Greek war of Independence, whom Miss North miscalls an American, evidently confusing him with the American painter of the same name), and Miss Hosmer, of whom Miss North writes while at Rome:

"Once Miss Raincock took me to see Gibson's young American pupil, Miss Hosmer, in a large unfurnished studio she had just taken, where she was preparing to make a portrait statue of some famous countryman. It was to be nine feet high, she said (looking herself like a small child); she had only one chair, which she gave me, as the stranger; seating our old friend on the table, she mounted to the top of a high ladder herself, from whence she chattered and laughed with the happy air of one who is successful and sure to please."

The thirty years which have gone by have so changed and civilized many of the then little-known mountain places among the Dolomites, in the Val Aosta, and in Switzerland that this journal remains as the record of what has long passed away. Venice was still under Austrian rule and Greece under King Otho. It is a pity the editor did not more carefully revise some statements, such as, "The temple of Ægina is of a coarse gray limestone; *it is 300 years older than the Parthenon*, and its architecture is heavy and barbaric in character, with those sculptured figures from its pediment we remembered at Munich, which, in point of art, are as inferior to the Elgin marbles as the temple is to that of Pallas Athenè." About the Bocche di Cattaro, too, Miss North writes: "It is the only sea outlet of that country [Montenegro], so is naturally a source of perpetual discord between Greece [?] and Austria for its possession"; but Greece never laid claim to the Bocche di Cattaro. Notwithstanding inaccuracies of this kind and some misspellings, the book is very pleasant reading, full of amusing stories of people and events that came across the writer's paths.

The Literature of Philanthropy. Edited by Frances A. Goodale. With Introduction by Blanche Wilder Bellamy. Harper & Bros.

This second volume of the small, 16mo "Distaff" series is presented to the public with the same introductory words that accompanied its predecessor. Their writer, signing herself "Chairman of the Committee on Literature of the Board of Women Managers of the State of New York," somewhat naïvely ignores the fluctuating prominence of events in not definitely mentioning by name the Chicago Exhibition, here as elsewhere in her undated brief account of the women's exhibit in literature at Chicago, of which the papers in the volume form a part. In the editing, also, explicitness has been deemed unneedful, not one of the papers bearing the date of composition. Several of the twelve that fill the measure of the collection seem to have been written expressly for it, while two—one, by Mrs. Maud Wilder Goodwin on "The Anti-Slavery Legacy," the other, by Mrs. Julia Margaret Fuller Lloyd, on "The Negro and Civilization"—are stated to be reprints from the *Popular Science Monthly* and the *Evening Post*. As the chief permanent value of papers having the journalistic character of all of these is to serve as milestones along the path of progress, the oversight of not stamping their numerals distinctly upon them, so that he who runs may read, is naturally a damaging one.

As a matter of fact, the only justification of the existence of a series of volumes ostentatiously composed, edited, and prefaced exclusively by women is as a sort of special pleading of the cause of women before a stiff-necked generation. Viewed in this light, they ought to be armed at all points against adverse criticism; and although papers from such writers on particular subjects as Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell on "Criminal Reform," and Mrs. Elaine Goodale Eastman on her wards, "The Indians," must lend value and interest to any volume, to call one of this modest compass 'The Literature of Philanthropy' is to give a rather wide interpretation to its scope, notwithstanding the variety and timeliness of the topics on which the essays briefly touch.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, C. L. Bulbs and Tuberous-Rooted Plants. Orange Judd Co. $2.

Arithmetic by Grades. Book Number One. Boston: Ginn & Co. 20 cents.

Bach, Capt. F. W. How to Judge a Horse. W. R. Jenkins. $1.

Curtis, G. W. Other Essays from the Easy Chair. Harpers. $1.

Daly, C. P., and Kohler, M. J. The Settlement of the Jews in North America. Philip Cowen.

Ethelmer, Ellis. Woman Free. London: Women's Emancipation Union.

Ford, P. L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. II. Putnams.

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